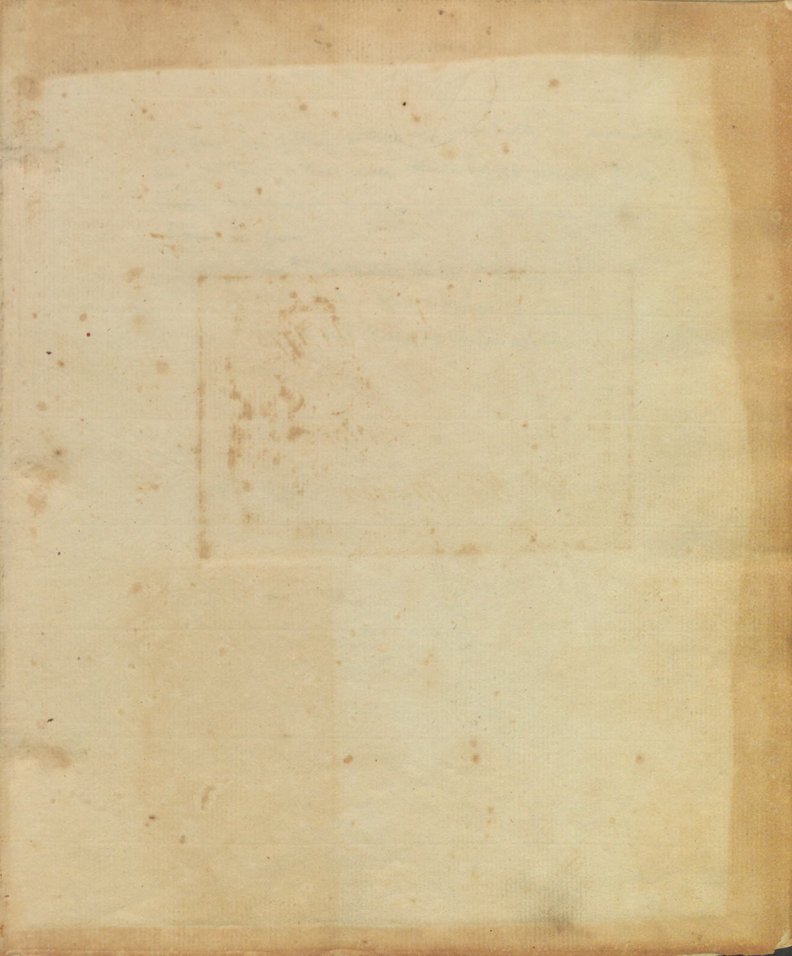


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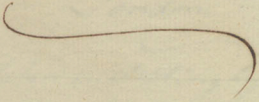
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*D^r Hunter's
Anatomical Lectures*

1775 & 1776



Anatomical & Chirurgical
Lectures

Read by D^r William Hunter

& M^r William Cruikshank,

(on Dissected Bodies)

at their Theatre in

Windmill Street, Hay Market

London

Taken in Writing by

William Tempest Mercer

A Pupil attending the said Lectures, in

1775 & 1776

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from the "Same as That" which Hunter left corrected for the
Press" the publisher in 1784 the year in which that last
course was given.

Two Introductory lectures / delivered by /
Dr William Hunter / to his last class of / Anatomical
Students / at his / Theatre in Windmill-Street

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Introduction

Anatomy is the Art of Examining Human Bodies by Dissection. The Advantages we receive from it are very great, the principal of which is that it teaches us a rational Method of Learning & Discovering. The Word Anatomy is derived from the Greek, and strictly speaking signifies cutting, but in its most general Acceptation is less confined signifying any thing done with a View to discover the Structure & Organization of Animals, comprehending in this Sense, Incision, Injection, Corrosion, Distillation, Boiling, Preservation &c. &c. and is extended to every part of the body. Anatomy is divided into Human & Comparative, the first respects only the Human Species, the latter includes all other Animals whatever. The first, or Human Anatomy is what we profess to teach, intending only to introduce occasionally just so much of the second as may be necessary to illustrate, more readily explain the first. The Structure of the Body is in many parts extremely delicate & fine, as to remain yet undiscovered, in others it is more apparent, and comes under our Inspection. From the Dissection of Bodies the Ancients gained all the Anatomical Knowledge they were possessed of. No Wonder therefore that we find their descriptions of the Human Frame so erroneous and incorrect, as greatly inferior to those of the Moderns, who have such frequent Opportunities of having recourse to Human Bodies to solve their Difficulties. This as well as most of the Arts has undergone many Revolutions, at one time it has been held in the highest Veneration & cultivated by Men of Eminence, at another it has been despised, and neglected, as to its Origin we are still in the dark. Like others perhaps it had no precise Beginning, the common Accidents of Life awakening more than an Attention we bend to the Consideration of this Subject, so that it is very probable the first Man might have attained some Knowledge of the External Form, and even

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And even a small degree of the Internal. This rude knowledge gradually improving from Man's having observed the Alteration in Bodies by all kinds of Diseases, Funeral Ceremonies, &c. such like at last grew into a System. It must have received great Assistance from the Ceremonies used at Sacrifices: he whose business was to perform those Rites, could not, but find something to engage the Attention, & to excite Reflection. The Priest, the Augur, but above all the Butcher must have acquired some Idea of the Animal Machine, their Occupations leading them often to the inspection of Parts. The finding of Brutes similar in many Respect, to Man, &c. they being easily procured, induced men more frequently to examine into this Texture, by which means a gradual insight was gained into the Animal Economy, & Anatomy became a Branch of Learning. The Greeks are the first People we have any Auth. of, who studied it as an Art: it is probable that they first derived their knowledge from the Eastern Nations, particularly the Ethiopians & Egyptians: one, from its being so closely connected with Astronomy in its progress. The Egyptians & other Eastern Nations from the Situation of their Country, the clearness of the Sky, the greatest part of the Year, & from their custom of sleeping on the Floor, & with no other Canopy than the Heaven, could not fail of making many Observations on the Motions of the Heavenly Bodies, & from the great influence those Motions were supposed to have, on the Human Body, it is highly probable that they studied Anatomy likewise: however that be, Thales, surnamed the Wise is the first Anatomist we have any account of, & this was 580 years before Christ. No Progress was made in the Art till the time of Hippocrates, who was contemporary with Socrates, Xenophon, & Plato 400 years before the Christian Era. He divided Anatomy & Medicine from the other Arts, & made it a distinct Study. He is the first Author we have any account of, who wrote on Anatomy. He informs

The Introduction.

He informs us, he had never an opportunity of inspecting the human body, &c but once saw an human skeleton. The first Dissection we have on Record was made by Democritus of Abdera, who had for his Subject a Dog. From Hippocrates the art gradually increased till the time of Galen, who lived in the second Century, (that is 600 years after Hippocrates) during this Interval several great men appeared who contributed much to its advancement, particularly Aristotle, who lived about one hundred years after Hippocrates. He raised Philosophy in general to a very high pitch, but was a greater Physiologist than Philosopher, and also Theophrastus and Aristarchus (about 250 years before Christ) of Alexandria, where the Greeks went to finish their Education. Here most probably the first human dissections were made. Galen applied himself diligently to Anatomy, studied in Asia Minor, & then went into Alexandria. He composed many Books, which for the time he lived in, are certainly a very great performance, but his Dissections were chiefly confined to Quadrupeds, opportunities of dissecting human Subjects from the superstition of the times being very rare. For a long series of Years after Galen the art declined, & soon ended in total decay, in general, decaying as the Empire of Rome decayed. Galen had acquired so great a Character as an Anatomist, that his Successors, probably despairing of going beyond so great a man, contented themselves with explaining his Doctrines. Then in the fifth Century learning of every kind received a severe shock from the Invasion of the Barbarian Goths, & Vandals, who overran all the Western Empire, & destroyed what ever traces of the Arts they could find, which obliged Men of Learning to fly to Greece to avoid their Fury. But in the middle of the seventh Century I received almost a total overthrow from the Saracens who spread their Devastations over the East, depriving the former of

Cassell.

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Excellency and Contempt of Letters among other places which suffered from their Violence was Alexandria, which has been the seat of Learning for 300 years, where the finest Library then in the World was burnt. In less than 100 years after the Appearance of Mahomet, they had conquered all Asia Minor, & Africa, & about the year 677 came to the Eastern part of Europe; here they laid Siege to Constantinople, the only place where the Arts remained, but happily were repulsed. Under the Government of the Caliphs, Physics & Geometry were on a very indiffrent footing, but Abdallah, who lived about the year 749 protected learned Men, & invited them to Court particularly the Arabians, who had learnt this Art of the Greeks, & from the Arabs the Western part of Europe gained all their knowledge, Spain being conquered & possessed by them. The Arts, which had been almost extinguished by the Invasions of the Goths & Saracens, in the latter part of the Thirteenth Century began to dawn in Europe, particularly in Italy, where Brunelles in the year 1313 published & explained what was left of Galen, which publication was by a Public Decree pronounced to be the Standard of Medicine, and was read in all the Schools throughout Italy for 200 years. In the fifteenth Century the Descendants of the Saracens, the Turks took Constantinople, and committed the same Outrages their Predecessors had done. The Greeks fled from their Barbarity to Italy, which was at this time disposed to receive them. A Desire of Literature having arisen among them, thus it came about, that the Italians were the first, that made advances to restore Learning, soon after which the Useful Art of Printing was invented. The Portuguese found out the Passage to the Cape of Good Hope, and in the fifteenth Century Columbus discovered America, so that many circumstances arose nearly at the same time to excite Men to cultivate the Arts: And indeed the Improvement of ancient Knowledge, with which Italy every where abounded, must have contributed in a great degree,

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great degree to excite this flame: one reason why the Jews & Mahomedans made no progress was, that Anatomy was their superstitious Doctrine of Cleanse & Uncleaness, & therefore they were averse to the handling of dead Bodies. About this time, in the 15th Century, the famous Leonardo de Vinci, who was the first Man, that made any Anatomical Drawings, published a Treatise with Anatomical Plates, & Explanations, the Figures were drawn with red Chalk touched with a Rose, & the Explanations are written with the left hand backwards, so that it is necessary to make use of a looking glass to read them. His Book is now preserved in his Majesty's Library, & Testimonies are given by Authors, which render its authenticity indubitable. Visarini in his Lives of the Painters, says that Leonardo contrived for his own amusement Drawings of the Anatomy of an Horse; & from the Excellency of his Figures, and Delinations we may conclude him to have been an excellent Anatomist. Antonia de Leuw a read Lecturer at Padua, & was the first Anatomical Lecturer we know of, he explained Galen, & taught Physics. Morgagni & others taught Anatomy, & made some few Discoveries, but till the time of Vesalius, they did little more than copy Galen. In 1540 Vesalius appeared, he was at Brussels in 1514, from Brussels he went to Paris, & was under Sylvius: here he remained 8 years, & was uncommonly studious, often eating Sables, & sometimes whole Bodies from the Gallies: At the Age of 28 he published a System of Anatomy illustrated with many noble Figures, in which he deviated from the common Errors adopted from Galen by Sylvius. He was afterwards under Cornelius & Andronicus, when he now & then had opportunities of dissecting a human Subject, afterwards he returned to Leuven, where he taught Anatomy. He was publicly invited to Padua by the Magistrates to teach Anatomy & Physics. He taught also at Bologna, & Pisa by turns, making one Course to last about three Weeks. He was well supplied with bodies by the public Order from the Executions.

He went

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He went afterwards to the Court of Charles the fifth, but not being so well received by the Emperor as he thought he merited, he withdrew himself, & in a fit burnt all his papers. His dissenting from Galen in many things raised him many Enemies, particularly, Silvanus, Columbus, Fallopius, Lindachius, & others, with these he held great disputes, but in the course of these controversies falling into the same fault of which he had accused Galen / giving dissections of parts of the Human body from those of Brutus / he came into disgrace, for in Spain he had no Opportunities of dissecting human Subjects. He lost his life as he was making a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. From his time the Arts have been improving. In the year 1600 Harveus, as was customary then, went to study Anatomy in Italy. His Master Fabricius ab Aquapendente having discovered the Valves in the Veins, published his doctrine of the Veins carrying the Blood from the Heart to the Liver. This was sufficient for Harveus's Genius to work upon, & from experience he found out the Circulation of the Blood in 1616, but did not publish it till 1628. Harveus's Doctrine at first met with considerable Opposition from the Followers of Galen's System. The great thing that naturally prevented itself for enquiry was the passage of the Nutrient into the Blood. In 1627 Wesselius discovered the Lacteals, and in 1651 Puquet dissecting a Dog to observe the Lacteals, discovered the Thoracic Duct & Receptaculum Chyli. In 1652 Rudbeck, a Swede, and Bartholine discovered the Lymphatics. When these things were known, it was natural enough to enquire, whether Nature observed the same Occasion in the Fetus as in the Adult. On this Subject Harveus published some valuable books, and about this time some Dutch Anatomists, viz. Swammerdam, Van Horne, Steno, & De Graaf made a great noise in their Writings, in which they endeavoured to prove that Viviparous Animals are produced from Eggs as well as Oviparous Birds.

Malpighius

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Malpighius by the help of Magnifying Glasses discovered parts, which before had escaped the minutest inspection. He was ~~assisted~~ ^{seconded} by Leuwenhoek who discovered the Globules of the blood, & carried his researches so far, as to affirm that he saw that the communication of the Arteries, & the Veins, and that there were an infinite number of Animalcules in the male Semen. Towards the latter end of the last Century, Physicians & other Anatomical Preparations were made under Swammerdam, & Ruysch in Holland; and Sawpury, & Mandue, in England. Dr. Nicholls was the first that aided the process of Concoction, by which the Vascular Structure of many parts is made evident by first injecting with Wax. The Figures & Models made of Wax are in general very inaccurate, but those made of Plaster, & lead from the parts themselves are very good & serviceable. Cheselden, Albinus, and others have given several exact figures of the different parts of the Human body, which have helped to improve the Art. Among the discoveries of the present Age Dr. Boerhaave mentions those which he has been fortunate enough to make himself, and which he thinks the greatest since the discovery of the Circulation of the Blood. Viz. that the Lymphatics or Absorbing Vessels are the same as the Lacteals, which with the Receptaculum Chylis, & Thoracic Duct form one system for Absorption: that in the gravid Uterus the internal Membrane of the Uterus composes the external one of the Secundines, and with them is thrown off from the Uterus every 9 months a Woman brings forth a Child, or Mice: carries being reproduced, and called Decidua, and that therefore the Placenta is partly made of an Recuscence, or Effluence from the Uterus itself. Mr. John Hunter discovered the Lacteals in bridges, Mr. Keason those in Fishes. At present's Reflection will prove, that tho' great Studies have been made towards perfection, yet the Subject is far from being exhausted, and were our

Services —

Introduction

Senses more acute, we should find that what we now know, compared with what is still unknown, would bear but a small proportion. *Anatomy* and *Anatomy* present us with the most striking Views of the Omnipotence & wisdom of the Creator. It is indispensably necessary for a man who practices *Surgery*, or *Physic* to be well acquainted with this study, it teaches him where to cut with Safety, and Dispatch, and enables him to form a just prognosis of Diseases. In short *Anatomy* is the Basis of *Surgery*, it informs the Head, guides the Hand, and familiarises the Heart with a kind of necessary inhumanity in the use of cutting Instruments. The Anatomist, who can calmly consider the Structure of the Human Body without having the noblest Thoughts arising in his mind of the Divine Author / if there is such a man I say, he must certainly have his Soul labouring under a dead Paley, as the great Milton could look on the Sun at mid-day, without seeing its light from a defect in his Optic Nerve,

The Structure of the Human Body in General

Lecture 2^d

Having taken a short View of the Rise & Progress of Anatomy, we shall now proceed to give some Account of the different Methods of teaching it, but must first make some Observations on the Structure of the Human body, in general. When we take a View of the great Number of different parts, of which the body is composed, their Dependence on each other, it appears to be such a complete Machinery, that instead of being surprised at the prodigious Number of diseases to which it is liable, it is really admirable, that every part performs its Office with such Exactness & regularity. A moment's Reflection will convince us, that the Animal Fabric, this complete Machine, is only necessary to us. Let us suppose it granted to a Man to Model a Being like himself, but if possible with less Imperfections, how would he go about the work? First, he has an Intellectual Mind given him to place in this Body, who must be provided with a proper Residence, the Brain we will say, is for this, where she may hold her Empire. As this Mind is to hold an Intercourse with the Body, to be a faithful Monitor to it, & to direct its Motions, it must have Nerves for these purposes, & of course it must have Nerves to give a power of Motion, to enable it to pursue what is most pleasing, & to avoid what is displeasing; Muscles & Tendons must be provided, different Bones are wanting to support the Fabric, & not one continued Bone, which would make the body stiff & rigid. The Ligaments serve to bind, & keep the Bones in their places, and that the Ends of these may be the more free & easy upon each other, they must be furnished with smooth Cartilages or Mucous, to fill up the intermedial spaces we add the Cellular Membrane, as a case or covering to the whole. The Skin, which is also

The Structure of the Human Body in General

is also the Organ of feeling. As this body, is to live in Society, & hold an intercourse with the beings around it, it must have the Organs of Touch, & the Organs of speech require the Organs of hearing &c. The Organs of Sight are absolutely necessary on a thousand occasions. Thus far then nothing appears superfluous. But the Machine is not yet complete. It is the Nature of Matter to act on Matter, & if the body was not continually recruited it would be soon worn out; therefore that fine Balsamic fluid the Blood must be provided to repair the Machine, to wash away the old Materials which are become useless, & to carry them to the several Excretories of the body, viz the various Glands thro' which the noxious, or useless particles are strained from the blood, & carried out of the body. That the Blood may perform these Offices it is necessary it should circulate thro' every even the most minute part of the body. And thus we see we perceive the Advantage arising from the Heart, the Arterial, & Venal Systems. The Blood itself from performing these Offices, would soon be expended were it not continually recruited. This must be done by Food. The Earth abounds with Mineral, & Vegetable Substances proper for this purpose, & Man is provided with most useful instruments, the hands, to procure Subsistence. Food in its crude state is very different from Blood, into which it is to be changed, which makes the Teeth, Stomach, &c. in short all the Organs Subservient to Digestion necessary, as also the Sense of Smelling, Tasting, that we may be able to choose proper food. The finer, & more subtle parts of this prepared Mass being what is proper for the formation of Blood, is absorbed by the Lactals in the Intestines, and conveyed into the Blood Vessels, while the grosser and useless part is carried thro' the Intestinal Canal out of the Body. Now this Body like all limited Ones, has its duration, it is nourished, grows, & at last

The Structure of the Human Body in General

arises at its perfection, decays, & falls to Dust. That the species should be preserved, it is necessary that it should have the power of multiplying its kind. Thus we see there are several different Systems in the body, the Vascular System for Nutrition, the Nerves for Sensation, the Ligaments for Union, the Bones for Strength, the Muscles & Tendons for Motion, the Organs of digestion for supplying the Nutrient, & the Organs of Generation for the propagation of the Species: After taking this View of the constituent parts of the Human body, there still remains the Organs of Respiration, which we cannot account for a Piece: that they are essentially necessary to life we well know, and we should lament our ignorance that we cannot perceive their Mode of Acting as readily as of some other Organs, yet when we reflect upon the wonderful contrivances exhibited in the human frame, the infinite wisdom shown in the putting together the several parts of it, each part having a power lodged in it to a certain degree of restoring itself when injured, to cut, & wound itself off, a broken bone unites & forms a Callus, dead parts separate from the living, & in this there is a redundancy of Blood or haemorrhage ensues, & when a proper quantity is evacuated the Vessels close again by their own Elasticity, together with the wonderful Mystery of Generation, we shall readily acknowledge our Frame to be the Work of an Infinite Wise and Good Being.

There are two Ways of teaching Anatomy, Analytically, & Synthetically. The first, or Analytic signifies Resolution or the taking to pieces the several parts, beginning with those which form the principal parts, and ending with the smaller. the second or Synthetic is just the reverse beginning with the more simple, and ending with the more compound: The first method is supposed to be the best adapted to the purpose of investigation.

The Structure of the Human Body in General, 12

investigation, and making discoveries. The latter has been pursued in teaching Anatomy, and many Treatises have been composed on this Plan, but as sometimes the one, and sometimes the other is best suited to explain the different parts, during the course of the lectures both will be made use of. This Branch of knowledge has been divided into two parts; the first properly called Anatomy, relates only to the Matter, and Structure of the body, the second called Physiology and Animal Economy, comprehends the internal operations, and functions depending on Life. The body is made up of solid and fluid parts, is therefore divided into Solids & Fluids, & these again subdivided. The Solids are divided into two classes, first the harder parts, or the Bones, called Osteology; secondly, the softer, or fleshy parts called Sarcology. Osteology includes the Bones only, but Sarcology is divided into many other parts: First, Angiology, or Doctrine of the Vessels; Secondly, Adology, or Doctrine of the Glands; Thirdly, Neurology, or Doctrine of the Nerves; Fourthly, Myology, or Doctrine of the Muscles; Fifthly, Splanchmology, or Doctrine of the Viscera. Besides the Organs of the Senses, Generation and Integument, there still remain three species of Solids, which cannot be properly placed in the classes above mentioned, viz. the Hair, nails, and Cartilages; the Cartilages are commonly classed with the Bones, as being appurtenances to them. The Hair & nails with the Integuments for the same reason. The Ancients divided the Body into Similar, and Dissimilar parts; of the first class were the Bones, Muscles, Blood Vessels, &c. &c. the dissimilar parts were such as a Finger, an Eye &c. This method the Moderns have rejected. Another Absolute Division of the Body was into Sanguineous, and Spermativ parts. Muscles & other parts which were

found

The Structure of the Human Body in General

of a red colour were called Sanguineous; Tendons & other parts, which were not of a red colour but pale, were called Spermatic. The Fluids may be divided into three kinds: first the Crude Fluids or the Chyle, and what is absorbed from the Surface of the body; secondly, the general and perfect Fluid the Blood; Thirdly, the local, or secreted, viz: all secretions whatever, particular ones to particular parts of the body, some useful and retained, others useless and expelled. It has been a Dispute whether Fluids are a proper Object for Anatomical Enquiry, they appear to be equally so with the Solids, they are both Objects of our Senses, and necessary to be understood. Describing and Demonstrating every part with Care will certainly teach Students more solid Knowledge, than perplexing their Minds with numerous distinctions. Fresh Subjects are very necessary to any one studying Anatomy, and so also are Preparations. Preparations serve two purposes, they enable us to keep for a long time uncommon and curious things, as the Gravid Uterus for example (and by these we can preserve from putrefaction the finest minute parts of the body; there are two Methods used for the making of Preparations, the Wet, and the Dry. Both these kinds have their Advantages, & disadvantages, being changed in some measure from their natural State. The Wet lose their colour, and from the Astringency of the Liquor in which they are contained their form in some degree is altered. The Dry change their Appearance greatly. The Muscles for example, from being fluid and pliable, become black, and rigid. Bones indeed retain their natural form. So much for the Anatomical or first part, into which the Study of Anatomy is divided. As to Physiology it is difficult to say what Plan is best to follow.

The Harveian

The Structure of the Human Body in General

The Human body may be compared to a lively, each part supposing something to precede it. Thus for example, if we speak of the Brain, the Nerves are understood; and if we speak of the Brain and Nerves, the Heart, and Arteries are supposed as contributing to their action, and likewise. The best Method seems to be, first to explain the Organs, and afterwards their functions. In proceeding according to that Plan, the Structure of the Parts, and their Human Phenomena (as Data) will be first explained; Secondly, the Hypotheses formed thereon; and lastly, I / Dr Hunter / shall give you my own Opinion. Lectures on Subjects intelligible in Points are but of little Service. —

The Blood

Lecture 3^d

We purpose to follow the Plan of Dr. Nicholls, and therefore give a general Idea of the Constituent and Similar parts of the Body, beginning with the Blood.

The Blood is that Fluid, which is contained in the Heart, Arteries, & Veins of all living Animals, and is continually circulating throughout the body. Its Colour in the Human body is red, but in some Animals it is of a different Colour. It has been called the Life of the Animal, the Magazine of Nourishment &c. as upon its distribution and motion the Continuance of Life depend, and upon its Effusion or Stagnation. Death ensues. Dr. Harvey in his publication de Generatione & Nutritione, has two curious & very entertaining Chapters on this Fluid. He made experiments upon it, & observed it to differ in different States and Stages of Life, & thought that it was in a more literal sense, the real Life of the Animal, the Anima or immaterial power residing in it: that it was the Primitive Saline which is observed in the Incubated Egg, and called it *Primævis visens*, & *Ultimævis visens*: that the Punctum by its irritation produced Motion in the Heart, and thus was the first in Life, and last in Death. And Mr. John Hunter has proved that the Blood while living is capable of forming Blood Vessels, which will unite with those already formed. We are not however to consider what it is but what its appearances are. The Colour of the Blood is always red in an healthy state, which is heightened by the Contact of Air. To the taste it is a little Saltyish, & appears to be of a gummy nature. For specifically gravity it is a little heavier than Water, in proportion of 1040, or 1050 to 1000, according to Sawin & Martin being a little heavier in a strong Subject, than in a weak one. When we look at it as it is running from an Artery or Vein, it appears to be an homogeneous fluid, but it is

but it is a compounded one, as indeed we might imagine it to be a
 Juice from the different kind of substances used in our Food, and the
 different kind of secretions separated from it, as the Saliva, Milk &c &c
 We shall examine it three ways, first, by the Microscope, secondly, by
 watching it when let out of the body, & observing the Phenomena it presents
 to View, and thirdly, by a Chemical Analysis. On viewing the blood thro'
 a Microscope there appears to be a number of little red Bodies or Globules
 swimming in a colourless fluid. The Proportion these bear to the whole
 Mass is not to be determined; it is probable it differs considerably in differ-
 ent people, and different Ages of Life. There appears to be a much
 greater quantity of them in People in high health, & robust Constitution,
 than in those labouring under tedious Diseases. In common they appear
 to make about an eighth part of the whole Mass of Blood. It is supposed that
 3000 of them lined in a row like Beads would reach about an Inch in length.
 Dr Huxley says, that at first View they appeared to him round, in another
 oval, in another flat, & in another round again, from which he concludes, they
 are round & flat, like a piece of Money, and that on these several appearan-
 ces as they turn round. Many who have examined the red Globules,
 have observed in them a nucleus, or dark Spot in their middle; others suppose
 that the Globule is a Bag containing a fluid; others that they are Solid
 bodies, and some, that this latter we do not certainly know what they are.
 The red Colour of the Globules is the result of a great number of them
 lined together, every single one being of a yellowish colour; so a piece of Horn
 of a dark red Colour, for instance, if cut into thin shavings appears transparent.
 The red Globules are the heaviest part of the Blood, when out of, and were
 separated in the body: they are by some means or other decomposed, for when
 they have been let out of the body, a considerable length of time, the Globules
 cannot

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cannot be seen distinctly, and in extravasations they are broken down, liberated and carried off. The Blood Globules were first discovered by Malpighi in 1665, and after him Swenhoeck & others enlarged considerably on this discovery; Swenhoeck took up an Idea, that a red Globule was composed of six small ones united together, & thence that the falling of a Globule from three six constituents is the Blood becoming Serum; & further he supposed one of these six was a Globule was composed of six Lymphatic ones. Now Did this Opinion endure? Dr Martin has in the Medical Essays illustrated this doctrine by six Balls of Wax which he says will be very close on each other and become a sphere with a little pressure. But the Moderns have totally rejected this Doctrine. Secondly, Blood drawn fresh from a Vein, and not at once presently becomes a Jelly in a little time after it separates into two parts, a Cake called the Coagulum, or Crassamentum, and the Serum, & when it is not disturbed, the watery part, or Serum is without any red Colour, & is of a yellowish hue, & therefore all the red Globules are contained in the Crassamentum. The Blood may then be considered as composed of three parts, principally, first of red Globules, secondly of Coagulum, & thirdly of Serum. Of the first we have already spoken, we shall now consider the Coagulum or Crassamentum. If Blood recently drawn be constantly stirred with a Stick, until it is cold, a considerable quantity of rough fibrous Substance will adhere to the stick of a red Colour; this is the Coagulum united to the Blood Globules, & if this Substance be well washed in water, the blood Globules will separate from it, & tinge the water with their colour, & what remains in the Bason will continue fluid. Hence we may suppose the Coagulum to be somewhat similar to glue like glue, when warm it is fluid, and it jellies like glue when cold. This coagulating part of the blood has such a propensity to coagulate when stagnate, that it separates from the other principles when Blood is extravasated in any part of the

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part of the body, and in fine acquires great firmness. This Coagulum will not dissolve in boiling water, nor in spirit of wine. Indeed, if left long in the water, it would putrify like all other Animal Substances. When blood has stagnated some time in the Uterus or Vagina it becomes very compact, & of a fleshy consistence, and when discharged, is mistaken by Women for pieces of flesh, and is called a mole, or false Conception. The Superior surface of the Uterus is a bleeding Paving, & becoming highly red depends on the Air only, which is proved by Dr John Hunter in the following manner. He filled a Bottle with blood & corked it close so as to exclude all Air, where the blood remained as black as at first, but upon the Air being suffered to come into contact with any part of it, that part becomes of a very florid colour. The Coagulum contracts, & becomes smaller, & smaller the longer it is kept, wasting in time to a very considerable degree. The Coagulum has been called by several different Names. Some have called it Clotter. An English calls it the Fibrous part of the Blood, it is not however composed of fibres or Fibrils like the Muscles, but forms itself into one common Coarctile like the white of an Egg hardened by Boiling, as we find it in Arteries & Polypus. In Anemics, where the Circulation is languid this first begins to coagulate at the sides of the Vessels, which are furthest from the common road of Circulation, after which another Laminar is formed & so on. In dissecting an Anemic we find this Laminated Appearance. This coagulating matter is generally called coagulable Lymph, but as the Lymph may also be coagulated, we rather chuse to call it coagulating Lymph. It is the coagulating Lymph, which makes that whitish appearance in what is called Buff, Pleuritis or inflamed Blood. After Bleeding the Uterus is sometimes found of a red colour at the top, sometimes Buff. The reason of the Bloods having a Buff on its Surface, is because at this time, it is from some unknown Cause

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Causes rendered more fluid than it is in common, so that the red particles or Globules
:les from their gravity, subsiding, leave the Coagulating Lymph, which jellies by
itself appears whitish at the surface, & when this is the case it is observed the
Blood is not only more fluid, but longer before it jellies, and the Buff may be
seen as it gradually forms itself. The colour of the Blood first appears of a
purplish or bluish hue, & then gradually becomes buffy. This appearance of
Buffy has been generally looked upon as a Criterion of Inflammation, but it
is not much to be depended on, for Blood drawn from a pregnant Woman in
perfect health will often have this appearance, & also after Child birth, so that
we ought to depend but little on that circumstance in judging of their disea-
:ses. The Polypus in the large Vessels near the Heart is often mentioned by
Authors, & supposed to be a disease and to cause Death is only this Lymph
coagulated after Death in consequence of the Motion of the Blood having ceased.
The Polypus is common, found in the Lungs next the heart, & more frequently
near the Pulmonary Artery than the Aorta. It's having been found in People
who had complained of difficulty of breathing & other Symptoms, it was supposed to
have formed during the life of the Patient, & occasioned those Symptoms, and
very often that it was the cause of Death. Dr Hunter was once of this
opinion, but what led him first to the discovery of its having been formed
after Death, was his observing that in the Pulmonary Artery, the interior of the
three large Vessels were always coated on the Polypus, from whence he concluded
that at the time of its formation, the Vessels must have been full of Blood,
of course it could not exist there during Life. And he says, that the inferior
part of a Polypus (which is in general towards the Back, a dead Body, being
laid Supine) is always necrotic in consequence of the red Globules being determined
to that part by their gravity, & that the Superior part has generally a buffy appa-
:rance. While the Blood is in Motion it never coagulates in the Vessels, but
when stopped it does, & if we examine the end of an Artery that has been tied in
amputation

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Amputation some time before, we shall find that this which had constricted and plugged up the end of the artery and the ligature, has become a fleshy substance, & obliterated the Canal for some distance. Whatever occasions exit of the blood in the body, occasions the coagulation of this Sympth, for if we open an artery in a gangrenous part, we shall find it stuffed up with Coagulated Sympth, so far as it is included in the Gangrene. The Deat part of the blood to be considered is the Serum, this continues to secrete from the Crasamentum for a considerable time after it has been drawn from the body, even when Putrefaction begins, it is not all separated from the Crasamentum. It's colour is different in different States of the body. In general however it is transparent & of a yellowish, or what is called an Amber colour, sometimes we find it muddy, sometimes greenish, and at other times perfectly white or opaque. I Rememb once saw Some of a Bath's in Cayenne, which entirely resembled Milk in colour. It is not known upon what this white colour depends, it is however a general received Opinion, that if a Person is bled soon after eating, a bit of meat is observed in the blood, which is supposed to be the true Chyle, not yet converted into blood, but this could not be the cause in the Case just mentioned, for the meat must have been as large as the whole body, to furnish a sufficient quantity of Chyle to colour the whole of the Serum. The greater part of the Serum is watery, it contains sometimes a larger, & sometimes a smaller proportion of it, by distilling plentifully, it is increased, & by copious excretions it is diminished. With an heat of 150 Degrees of Fahrenheit's Thermometer, it coagulates, becomes white & opaque, spirit of Wine, Allumny Concentrated Acids produce the same Effects. Chymists observe that it contains Salt unaltered especially sea salt that is taken into the body with food. Essential Oils not changed into blood. & many excrementitious parts not strained from it. Philosophers find nothing permanent in this World, every thing in the Animal, Vegetable & Mineral Kingdoms appears to be continually changing. In Animals, & Vegetables -

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Vegetables this is clearly seen, and is apparent from Fermentation & Putrefaction. Man converts the Animal & Vegetable Substances he uses for food into himself, but dying he himself becomes putrid, and affords nourishment to the Vegetable Kingdom. This may also be said of Fossils, particularly Metals, which Dr Hutton & says Dr Indye, proved to him from Specimens of Lead.

There are 3 ways to determine whether a Substance belongs to the Animal Kingdom, or not; first by burning it, all Animal Substances give a peculiar smell on being burnt, thus the smell arising from the burning of Skin, Flesh, Feathers, Horn, Hair &c is exactly the same; Secondly, by exposing it to the action of mineral Acids, & to Caustic Alkali, which destroys all Animal Substances; Thirdly, by wetting and keeping it in a warm place, & if it is an Animal Substance it will go on to Putrefaction. We come now to the third Method of examining the Blood, that by a Chymical Analysis, (Chymically examined the Blood appears to be composed, in common with other Animal Substances, first, of water, secondly, jelly, or Mucilage soluble in water this differing from other Mucilages, in that it is dissolved with greater difficulty in warm than in cold water; Thirdly, Volatile Alkali; fourthly, Grop Oil or Fat, unlike other Fat in that it produces no Volatile Salt in Distillation; fifthly, Essential oil, but in exceeding small quantity; sixthly, a latent Acid (which is formed in greater quantities in some than other Animals) seventhly, Earth which is a Native principle; it is absorbent, & may be dissolved by Nitric Acid; it is called refractory Earth because it dont distill, therefore Crucibles are made of burnt bones. The Quantity of this Earth is different in different parts of the body, The Blood & Flesh contain about a sixteenth part, a quarter part in the Hair & Nails, & a third or fourth part in the bones. Lastly, fixed or fixable Air which indeed is formed in every part of the body, but does not show itself till putrefaction lets it loose. This is evident from putrefied bodies swimming in water. But whether it is mixed with the constituent

constituent parts is not determined, and it still remains a doubt whether the Blood contains Atmospheric Air, or not; We are now pretty certain that the Body does not contain the least Calcareous Earth. When the Blood is distilled, seven eighths of it appear to be Water, first a Volatile Alkaline Liqueur comes over, or spirit of Plants soon, next a Salt which concretes in the neck of the Receiver, afterwards the Liqueur grows oily, first of a yellow colour, afterwards black, & there remains behind Carbo, & black Caput mortuum; This being burnt, and afterwards washed gives a small quantity of Ammoniacal Salt, and Sea Salt, an Earth remains with a small quantity of Iron, which Chymists have found to be an almost Universal principle. In this Lecture all minutiae are avoided, & only such properties and Phenomena of the Blood taken notice of, as every Surgeon & Physicist ought to be acquainted with. By Alkaline Earths we mean, that when they are applied to the Tongue, they absorb the Moisture, and leave a roughness on it; The Earth of Shells is absorbent and Calcareous, but Animal Earth is only Calcareous.

The Vascular System

Lecture 4th

Having explained the nature of the Blood, we come now to consider what it is contained in, and how distributed to every the minutest part of that Body; the Blood Vessels perform this Office, or to use a common expression, the Vascular System. The Organs serving this purpose are the Heart, Arteries, & Veins, of these the Heart may be considered as the Center: the Arteries carry the Blood from it to all parts of the body, and the Veins bring it back to it again. Previous to describing the Arteries & Veins, we shall just observe that the Heart is a composition of muscular bags, that these bags are very strong & few in number, two of them call'd Ventricles, from whence the Arteries arise, and two call'd Auricles with which the Veins communicate. An Artery is a hollow flexible Tube beginning at the Heart, which has a pulsing Motion, & seems to carry the Blood from the Heart to all parts of the body for its nourishment; as it recedes from the Heart is divided into innumerable branches, so extensively distributed thro' every point of the body, that a wound cannot be made with so small an Instrument as the point of a Pin, without injuring some of them. Even the coats of the Veins are supplied with numerous Arteries. Hence some of the Ancients were of opinion that the Arteries formed the whole Animal Body. The word Artery in Greek from whence it is derived, signifies an Air Carrier, & appears to have been first used for the Wind Pipe. The Ancients call'd all the Vessels indiscriminately by the name of Veins, till it was found that one kind of them had a power of contraction & dilatation: supposing this kind to have the property of drawing or sucking in Air, they nam'd it Arteries: There are only two Principal Arteries in the body arising from the two ventricles of the Heart, viz, the Aorta, or that arising from the left Ventricle, and the Pulmonary Artery, or that arising

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that arising from the right Ventricle. The Porta is distributed into an infinite number of Ramifications thro' all the several parts of the body, & thus distributes the blood thro' the lungs, & the Pulmonary Artery was before the discovery of the Circulation of the Blood, called a Vein, & being I resembled an Artery in some respects, they called it Arterio-venosa, or Arterial Vein.

The Branches of the Porta take names from the parts to which they are distributed. Ed! those of the Pulmonary Artery having no particular names. The Arteries are ramifying Tubes of a Conical figure, perfectly round, because always full of Blood when free from pressure. Arteries send off branches, like Branches from a Tree: the part they are sent off from is called The Bifurcation of the Artery. When an Artery divides into two Branches, the Diameter of the Two added together is greater than that of the Trunk they proceeded from: hence the Sum of all the branches taken together are much larger than the trunk which produced them. It is an almost general Rule, that the branches of Arteries go off at acute, yet many of them go off at right, & some at Obtuse Angles, and as an instance of the last, the Epigastric Artery is brought, but this is a Mistake, for the Epigastric Artery at first goes off at a right Angle, & then turns afterwards, & makes an Obtuse one. The nearer the Heart a Branch goes off, the greater is the Angle. In the small branches there are all sorts of Angles & Directions, particularly in the Anastomosing branches, & in the Extremities they run almost parallel. Every Artery, which is large enough to carry red blood, is called by the name of Arterial, or Arterio-venous, and those which are too small to admit the red Globules, but admit the Serum, are called Serous or Serifuous Arteries, & these are liable to be so affected as to admit red blood into them, which is called an Error Arterio-venosus. This may be seen in an inflammation of the Eye, where the Vessels of the Sclerica

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Tunica Conjunctiva, which naturally can only convey, are filled with red blood.

As Swenhook supposed vice Lymphatic Globules formed a Serous Globule, & in vice Snow knew a red Globule, so he also imagined there were three orders to carry them. But as Swenhook's Doctrine of the Globules is doubted, the term Lymphatic is laid aside; and indeed from the late discoveries we find that the Lymphatic Disjuncts are not continuations of the Arteries, but do of themselves form a System: And as we are not able to see any smaller Arteries, less than the Serous, and not then till they are made evident by an Evacuo Socia; the Moderns retain only the two Orders of Languiferous and Serous. Both Arteries, when they begin from the Heart, have Valves, whose Office is to prevent the Blood return upon the Heart, when the Arteries contract. In general they are three in number, tho' sometimes there are four, & sometimes but two, but they all answer the same End, as the Venatics we find in different bodies is generally in three Layers, where the Serous will answer as well.

The Branches of the Aorta in general take the straightest road to the parts they are distributed to, & as near as possible in the Center of the parts they pass thro', supposing the body to be in its natural position in the Limbs very close to the Bones. The most natural State of the body is when it is without Action, & in health; it is then neither sitting nor standing. For example, suppose a Man drunk, or Wodey, he does not lay with his Limbs straight, & at length on his back, but in the easiest posture, on his side with his Legs & Arms half bent, his Body and Head bending forwards, so as to bring all his Muscles into a State between Contraction & Relaxation. In this State of the Body, the Arteries go to the several parts, by the shortest way always, & on the hollow side. Accordingly we find the

artery

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Artery, when it leaves the Abdomen situated in the Groin, which is the hollow part when the Hip is bent, it then passes straight down to the Ham from before to behind, which is likewise the hollow part when the Knee is bent, & so on in the straightest course possible to the Foot; the same may be said of the Artery in the Axilla, passing into the bend of the Arm. The advantages attending the Situation of the Arteries is manifest, as they are hereby secured from injury better than they could possibly have been in any other position: for instance, had the Jugular Artery, passed down the back of the Thigh, it would have been injured by pressure; likewise if it passed over the Thigh, it would have been hurt on a thousand occasions. The Arteries run sometimes in a serpentine winding form, which I think supposed was to prevent their being stretched in parts which are liable to be distended, as in the Uterus & Ovaries. But it is certain that they do not become straighter when the Uterus is pregnant, for they become more convoluted. The Arteries continuing to branch on, at last form a network or Anastomosis, that is, their mouths open into one another, like the Vessels on the leaves of Trees. The largest Anastomosis is on the Brain. The Physicians have always understood an Anastomosis in this sense. The Ancients had a different meaning for the word, they supposed the extremities of the Arteries opened on the different surfaces of the body, as on the Lungs &c. Hence Galen speaking of an Hemorrhage accounts for it either from a rupture of the Vessels, or from a soaking thro' the Coats, or percolation, or lastly from an Anastomosis, in which he supposes that the small Arteries, which open on the Surface of a Cavity, are so far dilated as to permit the red blood to pass thro' them. The general Uses of an Anastomosis

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Anastomosis is, that the blood may be the more equally distributed. When the Artery is tied in the Operation for the Aneurysm, the Circulation thro' the Limb is afterwards kept up by means of the Anastomosis, which otherwise must have perished. The Coats of an Artery are white with a yellowish cast, very much resembling that Ligament in the Neck of a calf, called white Leather. There are two Opinions held with respect to the Contraction of an Artery, some supposing it to depend on Elasticity, Others that it is a Muscular Action. An Artery is a partly firm Substance, and Anatomists have observed it to be of a different texture, & have divided it into three Coats. The Internal Coat is an exceeding thin, smooth, polished Membrane, its fibres are so very fine, as not to be discernible, it has very little strength.

The second Coat is composed of Circular fibres, very visible to the naked Eye, resisting great force when pulled in a longitudinal direction, but easily separated when pulled sideways, these fibres as they run outward change their situation, and running in every direction form the third Coat. Some Anatomists describe a fourth Coat, which they call the Cellular Coat, but this cannot be properly reckoned a Coat, it is only a covering which it has in common with other parts of the body from the Cellular Membrane. The Use of the three Coats is very apparent: Had not the first been so fine & smooth the blood would have soaked thro' it. The second & third give strength to the Vessels. These Coats likewise are nourished by Vessels called the Vasorum, and from the Nervous influence upon the Arteries, it is supposed they have Nerves too. This influence is very great, for example let some Ideas rise in the mind, & instantly the whole Face is covered with a blush, which affection is an Eructioe of the Blood in the Vessels of the Skin of the Face.

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True, but D Hunter believes if they have nerves, they are but few, as the Arteries appear to be very insensible. The Blood by the muscular contraction of the Heart is forced into the Arteries, fills them throughout, and distends their coats. This swelling of the Arteries is called Diastole, the Arteries react upon the blood either by a muscular power, or from Elasticity, and pushes it forwards, while in this action, the Arteries are said to be in their Contraction or Systole. It was a common opinion with the Old Physiologists, that the Arteries had those Motions of themselves, and by this means they drew the blood from the Heart, for said they, if the Motion of the Blood is owing to the Action of the Heart, propelling it thro' the Arteries, why do those Arteries, which are at the greatest distance, pulsate at the same time, with those that are the nearest to it. To give a satisfactory Answer to this Question, we need only say, that the Arteries do not all pulsate at the same time, of which any Person may be convinced by putting a finger to the Carotid Artery and another to the Artery at the Ankle. Although the size of an Artery in its pulsation seems to be encreased very considerably, yet we find that it is not much so. This was made very plain to Mr John Hunter in the Carotid Artery of a Man laid bare, for tho' he was strong, & his pulse beat very forcibly on the finger, the dilatation of the Artery was so very inconsiderable as to be hardly perceptible, so that the difference of the feel between a contracted & distended Artery, seems to be rather a tightness than an encrease, so in proportion as the Arteries are filled in an highly injected Preparation, they appear more Synchronous. The Systole depends on the Coats of the Arteries reacting

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acting on the blood, either as Muscles, or Elastic Substances. Physiologists are not agreed what ^{that} power is, they call it the Power from the Irritation of Distension. Some have said, that the Action of the Arteries contribute nothing towards the Circulation; but Dr Hunter is of opinion, that they contribute to it greatly, & independant of their Elasticity, which power he thinks may be called Muscular, for endeavouring to inject Milk into the Mesenteric Veins by the Mesenteric Arteries in a dead Subject, he met with great difficulty, but in a live animal it readily passed down from the Artery to the Vein without any further force than filling the Artery with a Syringe, and then stoping the Orifice with the finger it passed of itself for whether this power is Muscular or not cannot be determined. We see that Muscular fibres contract, but cannot tell why they do so. The most minute Arteries have little or no sensible Motion, because their Capacity taken together, is much greater than the Trunk they sprang from: for the same reason the Velocity of the blood is greater in the large Arteries, & grows weaker, weaker in the small ones, till it's Motion becomes imperceptible. Whatever blood the Trunk, & large branches of the Heart receive; they receive from the contraction of the Heart, which not throwing out constantly, but at intervals, produces in those Arteries a Thumping or Jerk, when I dislodge them, but as the blood moves on towards the small branches, it is propelled by two powers, the Heart, & the Action of the Arteries alternately, these two powers then will force the blood thro' the small branches into the Veins in a constant stream, like the Wind issuing out from a double pair of Bellows, this is the reason why the Veins, which are only continuations of the Arteries have no sensible Motion.

The Arteries

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The Arteries in dead Bodies are commonly found empty, which is a Phenomenon that has not yet been accounted for. With the Circulation of the Blood the knowledge of the Pulse is connected. The Pulse is the Criterion by which we judge of the Action of the Heart. In this the Moderns have the Advantage of the Ancients, that it is a very distinguishing Mark of the State the Body is in, and we may draw great help from it, making a just prognostic of a disease; Yet we must always remember that the Pulse varies very considerably in different People, and that a thousand different things will affect the Pulse independant of disease, particularly the passions of the Mind.

In general the Pulse beats about 70 or 80 times in a Minute, yet we sometimes find a Pulse always beating in health 100 times, or more, and Dr. Astruc in common health had it beat 160 in a Minute for many years. In young Children it is quicker than in Adults, and in every person it is quicker in the Evening, than in the Morning. A Pulse is said to be large, or small, hard or soft, but a perfect knowledge of them can be only acquired by Habit.

Diseases of the Arteries

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The Diseases of the Arteries are next to be considered. There are two diseases to which the Arteries are very subject, an Anæmia, or Dilatation of their Coats, of which we shall speak hereafter, & their Ossification, or changing into bone. This last is a disease to which persons of an advanced age are most liable; and is found generally in the Extremities, particularly the lower ones, tho' there is no Artery but what is liable to it: even the Aorta is frequently Ossified. The Ossification always begins on the inside of the Artery, gradually shooting outward. Dr Hunter is not certain whether the Blood touches the bone or not, but believes it does not, as he thinks he has found the fine smooth Coat on the inner surface next the blood. It has been a common Opinion, that the Ossification happened in consequence of a disposition in the Solids to grow harder as Age advances, or for say they, the Solids of a young Subject are softer than those of an old one; Old People have many parts bony, which in Children are soft, that so in like manner the Arteries become bone. But this Ossification is certainly very different from the Ossification of Solids, and is owing to some peculiarity in the Constitution, or else we should find Ossifications always more or less frequent, in proportion as People are older or younger, and pretty certainly in Old Age, which however is by no means the Case; for they are sometimes found in Subjects under 40 years of age, & often in very Old Subjects there is not the least appearance of Ossifications. Dr Hunter discovered a Man, who died at the Age of 105, & could not find the least appearance of any Mortifications of the Extremities, especially of the Feet & Toes, being very frequent in Old Age, & which have been supposed to be owing to this Cause, & accounted for by saying that the Circulation

Diseases of the Arteries

Circulation growing languid from the Arteries being, incapable of forcing the blood forward, at length stops, & the part for want of nourishment decays.

This, tho' it may be the Cause sometimes, is far from being so always, as most commonly in these Infirmities there is no Obstruction to be found.

There was a Man in St. George's Hospital who had an Obstruction of the Carpal Artery, so that when the Finger was first applied to it, no pulsation could be distinguished; & upon pressing it with the finger firmly the bony Coats were felt to crush like an Egg Shell: It is probable in Amputations, when the Surgeon has been baffled in his attempt to restrain the Haemorrhage, that this had been the Cause: when we meet with any difficulty, then it will be right to examine the End of the Artery, & proceed accordingly. It is necessary to observe when we speak of the body, in general, we call those the extreme parts, which are farthest from the Trunk, as the Hands & Feet, but in speaking of an Artery, we call that an extreme part of the body, where the Artery terminates; in this Sense every part is an extreme part, even the Heart itself.

The Veins

A Vein is a nourishing Tube, in a general sense very similar to an Artery, but differing in this particular, that they begin to arise in the extreme parts of the body, and end at the Heart; therefore in an Anatomical Sense they are very similar, but in a Physiological one they are different, as we say the Arteries begin at the Heart, & terminate at the Extremities. There are six principal Veins which terminate in the Heart, two which conduct to the Heart, & bring back the blood which it carries out, namely the Vein Cava Superior & Inferior, which end at the right

Auricle,

The Veins

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Arteries; and the four Pulmonary Veins that bring the Blood back from the Lungs, ending in the left Atricle. The Arteries open into the Venicles, and thus the communication between the Arteries & Veins is kept up. In general the Arteries & Veins run together, but they may be distinguished from each other, by the Veins being larger and their Coats thinner than those of the Arteries. When the Veins are empty, or cut through, they become flat. They branch as the Arteries do, & anastomose in the same manner, with this difference however that the Anastomosis is more common in the large Veins, particularly in those of the Limbs. Their division, as that of the Arteries, is into Sanguinary, or those which carry red Blood, and Serous in those which carry Chyle & Lymph: thus were what was called Lymphatic Veins, but since the discovery of the Lymphatic System, this term has been rejected. Harvey discovered the Circulation at a time, when the Minute parts of the body were not well understood. He & the Anatomists before him could see that the Arteries & Veins branched out smaller & smaller, but they had no Idea of the infinite Number of fine branches extending every where, they conceived therefore that there was an intermediate Spongy or Cellular flesh, placed between the extremities of the Arteries, and Beginnings of the Veins, forming a kind of network Labyrinth between them, that the Arteries thrust the Blood into that Spongy flesh, & that the Veins took it up again. Malpighi, Swenhoeck, & other Projectors made it out clearly that the Extremity of an Artery terminated immediately in a the Beginning of a Vein, that the Veins are a continuation of the Arteries is made evident by Injection, for we can fill the Veins of the Hand by the Artery, & if we examine it, we shall find the Quicksilver when contained in a Spongy Substance, but when, where, in Vessels it is an easy Matter to inject the Quicksilver by tying a pipe into the Arterial Artery, and pouring into that pipe a quantity of Quicksilver.

The Veins

Quick silver, as to make a Column of it, to wasp the hand with the fingers downwards, & the quicksilver by its gravity will gradually get into the Vessels, & make them apparent thro' the Skin, and when they are sufficiently filled, remove it from running out; while the Vessels are filling, the quicksilver will be seen just as high in the Veins as in the Arteries, & if the hand be inclin'd to any side, it will make its way immediately to the most depending part, which fully convinces the communication between the Arteries & Veins to be a very ready One. What seems to prove this further is a preparation of the Secundines of a Puppy; the Arteries are filled with white, & the Veins with blue Ware, and when the Vein and Artery meet, the blue is seen mixing in the same Vessels with the white. In favour of their being a spongy flesh between the Arteries & Veins, the *Contra Larynx*; & a Series are produced as an instance; but even here it is not evident that the Artery throws its blood into a spongy substance, & that the Vein absorbs & carries it off. There was also supposed to be a beginning of Veins from the Surface of divers parts of the body, which were believed to absorb, & carry into the blood particles from without. As a proof of this it was said that Mercury rubbed on the Skin was absorbed by these Veins, & produced a Salivation, but it is now made very evident that the Lymphatics do this Office. In general the Veins are situated with the Arteries, running along with them, wherever they go, particularly in the Stomach, Liver, Spleen & Intestines, but in some parts they differ much, especially in the Arms & Legs. In these besides the Veins which run with the Arteries, there are Superficial Ones having no Arteries accompanying them. Thus the Veins on the back part of the hand run to the inside of the Fore arm, & form two great Trunks called *Brachial* & *Cephalic* Veins, which have no corresponding Arteries. There are also like Veins, on the Feet, Legs, Thighs

Thighs, Neck, & Head &c. Dr Hunter says he has often thought of
 these superficial Veins going alone, & why they do go in this manner differ-
 ent from others, and supposed it to be for this reason that muscular Motion
 requires an increase of Circulation of blood thro' those parts immediately in
 action, and therefore these Veins are provided to carry off this greater
 quantity of blood, least the deeper seated Veins should be pressed upon
 by the Action of the Muscles, and a Check to be given to the Circulation
 thro' them. A Vein is elastic, & appears to be more so than an Artery,
 and its Coat being thinner it appears to be of a much doer texture, &
 to want the Circular fibres, which make the second Coat of an Artery, so that
 it cannot be divided into different Coats. It is nourished by the Vasa
 Vasorum, like an Artery, & probably is furnished with Nerves, tho' they
 cannot be distinguished. Within the Veins there are Valves made
 of two similar Pellicles, which suffer the blood to pass towards the
 Heart, but prevent its return. Where these Valves are placed they cause a
 Swelling of the External Coat of the Vein, like the joint in a Reed or Canoe.
 Most of the largest Veins have no Valves in the Veins of the Lungs, Liver,
 Stomach, Intestines, & Matrices have none. They are formed principa-
 lly in the Limbs: the Neck has some, but in the Arms many are
 placed within two Inches of each other. The Use of the Valves has not
 as yet been satisfactorily accounted for by Physicians. Some have
 supposed that they served to counteract the weight of blood, when the
 body is in an erect posture, but had this been the View of the Creator
 in forming them, we may ask, why are they placed so close in the Veins
 of the Arms? and why is the Vena Cava Inferior (which supports a Column
 of blood two or three feet high) entirely destitute of them? It is plain
 in this Case the Phenomenon does not agree with the Theory. Dr Hunter
 conjectures

conjectures, that as Muscular Motion requires a greater quantity of blood and as the purpose of Muscles in Action views greatly to increase the motion of ^{the} blood one way, that is, towards the Heart, and as the extremities are the members chiefly used in all Exercise, that they are placed principally in the Veins of the Arms & Legs therefore, not in the other parts of the Body. The Motion of the Blood thro' the Veins is continually accelerated as it approaches the Heart, because it has less space to move in, for the very same reason that it moves quicker in the large than in the small Arteries. The Veins have naturally Inspulsating Motion, but sometimes a single Vein is found with a Pulsation, and sometimes there is such a general change wrought in the body, that many or most of them have been found to pulsate, as Dr Hunter has twice or thrice observed.

In Bleeding it is often observed that the blood is emitted with a jerking Motion, but this happens only in consequence of an Artery lying contiguous to the Vein.

Phlebotomy

We are now to consider the Effects of Phlebotomy, what change it will produce in the Circulation. When a Vein is opened the Circulation will be a little quickened in that part, & but a little. It may be necessary here to explain the former & ordinary of Derivation and Divulsion, on which so many Books have been written. Suppose then a Woman with an Obstruction of the Catamenia, we bleed at the Arm, that a great quantity of blood may flow to the lower parts of the body, this is making a Derivation. Again supposing a Man labouring under a Phrensy, or an inflammation of the Brain, we again bleed on the Arm, not to

make a

Phlebotomy

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make a Derivation to the lower Extremities, because they have too little Blood, but with respect to the Brain, or its Covering which have too much, this is making a Revulsion. — In all Ages taking away blood has been approved of for stopping Haemorrhages, & it has oftentimes a very good Effect. But Dr Sydenham thinks this remedy is often too much used, especially in uterine Haemorrhages, and thinks the Method often followed by the Ancients to be better namely, to make Ligatures on different parts of the body, and by that means to give a Check to the Circulation. Dr Sydenham says, that the Tendency in the Constitution of our bodies to stop Haemorrhages when they become prejudicial to Health is exceeding great, far beyond what is generally imagined; that he has been with hundreds of Women, who have had very profuse Haemorrhages in consequence of this miscarriages, and have been to all appearances dying with cold Sweats, difficult Expiration &c. yet never knew that one died, unless they were far Advanced in Pregnancy, for when the woman becomes weak thro' Loss of blood, the Action of the Heart grows weaker, & weaker, till she faints, and the Haemorrhage stops of itself. Great mischief may be done at this time by giving Cordials, for tho' at the time they are taken, they give a momentary Refreshment, yet by stimulating the Heart, they often renew the flooding. It is amazing what quantity of blood some Women lose, and yet do well. Now we have described the Diseases and Signs, we shall just describe a few particularities in both. All the Vesicles and Vessels, which is a great advantage, as they can by this means adapt themselves to their contents, which often prevents our being destroy'd by great Haemorrhages. Secondly, they enlarge

Phlebotomy

They enlarge in proportion as the Bulk of the parts increase, in which they are situated, as in the Breasts of Women, but particularly in the Uterus, & their Coat grows thicker at the same time, which is a circumstance, that has not yet been accounted for. Again in an Artery opened, and which has discharged its blood into a Vein, one would at first imagine, that as the Blood was drawn off, the Artery would grow smaller; but it is just the reverse, for the Circulation being accelerated thro' the Artery, it increases in bulk in proportion as the Circulation increases. This is evident in the Varicose Arteries. Lastly all the Vessels have a Tendency to contract, independant of their Elasticity or Muscular Power, & where the Blood cannot circulate freely, the Arteries become smaller & smaller, till at length they are contracted into solid Cords.

The Absorbing System.

Lecture 6

Having now considered the circulation of the Blood throughout the body, we shall next consider its appendage, the Absorbing System —

As the Blood serves to repair the daily waste made in the Constitution, it follows that there must be some provision made for renewing it, for which purpose views the Aliment we daily take for Food, is the nutritious particles of the food proper for making blood is taken up by very small Canals arising from the Surface of the Stomach, & Intestines every where, and carried into the Blood Vessels; these are so very small as to be imperceptible to the Eye, which was necessary that nothing might get into the blood, but what was small enough to circulate thro' the minutest Vessels. These Vessels, which absorb the Alimentary juices, and carry them into the blood, are called Lacteals, or *Lactal Vessels*. The Lacteals with another class of Absorbing Vessels form a System different from the Arteries & Veins, called the *Lymphatic System*. But before we enter upon it we will by way of Introduction first consider the Opinion concerning exhalant Arteries and Absorbing Veins. It has been supposed by Anatomists, that besides the Arteries & Veins already described which anastomose with each other, there was another Series, which arose from those as branches, that some of these small Vessels (or exhalant Arteries) opened on the Skin, thro' which the Matter of Sweat & Perspiration was supposed to pass, while others of the same kind were supposed to throw out a fine liquor on all the internal Surfaces of the body, to keep them supple & prevent the parts from adhering; and as a proof of this they said that if a body was opened soon after Death, the several Cavities & Surfaces were always found in a moist

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a moist State, supposing then this fluid poured out a question arises, what becomes of it? The answer is, there were inhaling or absorbing Veins, beginning not from the extreme branches of the Arteries, as the other Veins do, but from the Surfaces of the body, which take up this fluid, & carry it into the Veins. (The Absorption by the Skin is granted by all, for the method of salivating by mercurial Stinguents is a sufficient proof of it. In health what is exhaled & absorbed balances each other; if a greater quantity of fluid should be thrown out, or a less quantity absorbed than usual, it brings on Leucophlegmatica Dropsy, &c. If any Cavity suffers in particular, it occasions a Dropsy of that part, as we see is the Case in the Ascites, Hydrope Pectoris, Hydrocele &c.) — It appears doubtful, whether there are any Exhaling Arteries, or no; but seems very probable that there are none. The fluids that there were supposed to carry, we shall for the future call Interstitial Fluid. Whether the interstitial fluid is carried to the Surface of the body, by exhaling Arteries, or transudes the Coats of the Arteries cannot be determined Absolutely. This however may be said, that the Arguments made use of, do not by any Means prove the Exhalation. They say in support of it, that if you inject the Arteries with a subtle fluid, it gets into the Cavities of the body, and then ask, if there are not Exhaling Arteries how does the Blood get into the Cavities? Now nothing is more plain to a working Anatomist than that Coats of the Vessels allow of Transudation. The blood in the dead body transudes every thing except the Cuticle. There is one Experiment of true, that will undoubtedly, prove the Exhalation on the Skin. Boerhaave, Haller, & others have said that upon injecting quicksilver into an Artery, a dew of fine Globules arose on the Skin. The truth of this Experiment I recollect very much doubt, as he never has been able to make any Injection pass the Cuticle, he is of Opinion that it is by Transudation.

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transudation, for he thinks if the Exhaling Arteries, & Inhaling Veins were a Series of Vessels branching off from the larger Arteries & Veins, we might reasonably expect by injecting these, to fill those also, which we never find to be the Case, tho' he supposes that the Matter of Sweat, & Respiration is thrown off by Exhalation. By the parts surrounding the Gall Bladder being turgid, it would appear that the Bile itself would transude, but Dr John Hunter says, that this transudation does not take place till after death, which he is convinced of from having opened several ~~live~~ animals, & others just dead in order to examine those parts. It is not a matter of much consequence which way it is performed, & therefore we leave it a question whether the texture of the coats of the minute Vessels is not so close, but that this Interstitial fluid can pass thro', or whether it is thrown on the several surfaces, from the mouths of small Arteries opening thereon. The next question is, what becomes of this Interstitial fluid? Anatomists have been of Opinion that it was taken up by Absorbing or Inhaling Veins opening upon the parts as before mentioned. The Experiment given to prove this opinion is hardly to be believed. It is said that the Abdomen of a live Dog was opened, & Warm Water thrown into the Tomach, & intestines, that in a little time all the Veins about grew very turgid with the Water, and remained so till all the Water was Absorbed, & carried off; but Dr Hunter says that in Experiments of this kind at which he has been present, he never once observed, that the Veins were made more turgid by the water. There are many Arguments for the Lymphatic System that prove the Contrary of this Opinion. Dr Hunter says that this fluid is not taken up by the inhaling Veins, but by the Lymphatic Vessels. All the red Globules of Blood are kept within the Vascular System during Life, but after Death they transude, and colour all parts of the body in proportion to the time it has been dead. Transudation may perhaps happen in
consequence

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consequence of the Vessels having lost their Tension, but more probably from the blood Globules being broken down & dissolved. If an Artery is taken from an Animal lately dead, and filled with Water, tied close at each end, and laid in an horizontal position, yet the Water will transude, and it will be quite empty in a little time. The Lymphatic System has been known but a little more than an hundred Years. Anatomists before that time supposed that the nutritious part of the food was absorbed by the Mesenteric Veins, & carried by them to the Liver to be changed into blood. This Office however is since found to be performed by very small Vessels called Lacteals. In most parts of the body there are exceeding fine Vessels with very fine coats, & a great number of Valves, the fluid they carry having little or no colour is called Lymph, and the Vessels themselves Lymphatics. As the fluid they contain can pass only one way on account of the Valves, and that is from the branches towards the Trunk, they may be called Veins. In some parts of the body these Vessels run solitary without giving off any branches, in others parts they form wonderful plexus's of Vessels. the outer coat of the Liver seems entirely formed of them. Another difference between these Vessels, and the Arteries & Veins is, that an Artery or Vein becomes smaller & smaller in proportion as they branch more & more from their Trunk, but a branch of a Lymphatic often grows much larger than the Trunk it proceeded from. Another peculiarity is that the Lymphatics in their course all naturally run into a Lymphatic Gland, entering at one wide end, coming out at the other. The Lymphatic Glands are small, oblong, & round bodies commonly called Thymus, as were by the old Anatomists called Conglobate Glands, when they were first discovered, seeing that they were in general seated near large blood Vessels, as in the Arm pits, and Groins

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Groves, they were supposed to be placed there to support these Vessels. Nuck who first discovered these glands, says they are composed of a cellular substance, that a lymphatic vessel on entering one of the glands divided into many branches, which carried a fluid into the cellular or spongy substance, that from this spongy substance it was absorbed by those going out on the contrary side, in the same manner as Harvey supposed the Blood to pass from the Arteries to the Veins. This opinion of Nuck was held as sound Doctrine. Mr John Hunter has made several experiments to determine whether this substance is cellular or vascular, but has not been able to determine the point. Dr Wicksell, and the present Professor Morris of Edinburgh, say they are wholly vascular, & so did Præpoch. When the lymphatic quits the gland, the branches are united into one common Trunk, which as it proceeds unites with others, till they form one large Vessel near the spine called *Receptaculum Chyli*, & *Ductus Thoracicus*, which at last enters a Vein, so that whatever is carried by the lymphatic goes into the blood. This system therefore is plainly an appendage to the Blood Vessels. The branches of the common Trunk of the lymphatic Vessels have two different names, in all parts of the body except the intestines, they are called *Lymphatic Vessels*: Some of these are deep seated following the course of the Arteries, others are very superficially, & there is something peculiar in their distribution to every particular part. Those Vessels which arise from the inner surface of the stomach & intestines may be properly called *Absorbent Lymphatic Vessels* of those parts: But when they were first found, from their being full of a milky fluid they were called the *Lacteals* or *Chyle Vessels*, which name they still retain: they run from the intestines to the Mesenteric glands, and from thence to the Loins where they unite with the lymphatics from other parts, and form one common Trunk, in as far as we can judge a lacteal is like,

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is like a Lymphatic in every circumstance, going into, & coming out of Lymphatic Glands, in their passage to the common Trunk. We shall next consider the Use of this System. It was a common opinion that the Lymphatics were a continuation of Arteries & filled by them - Now as it was known long ago that the Lacteals arose by imperceptible branches from the Intestines, & carried the nutritious part of the food or Chyle to the Blood Vessels, it is surprizing that the Lymphatics should be thought to be continuations of Arteries. A strong proof that the Lymphatics are not continuations of Arteries is, that all Lymphatics have Valves, which the Arteries have not, and many other facts serve to confirm, that they are a System of themselves, an absorbing System from all parts of the body where Absorption takes place; and that there are no Absorbing Veins is a fact confirmed by many Observations. As the Lymphatics Absorb from all the Surfaces of the body whatever is capable of being taken in by them, & as they pass thro' Glands, if any fluid of a poisonous or irritating quality is of parts small enough to be taken into them, it often stops at these Glands & inflames them: thus Venereal poison occasions a Bubo in the Groin if the infection was occisied by the Genitals, & afterwards is carried into the whole habit. Dr Hunter says, he received the first hint of the Lymphatics being Absorbing Vessels from a Friend asking him his Opinion of Mr Fuchs's Chirurgial Publication (about the year 1748) to which he answered, that he had not read it; his Friend then mentioned Mr Fuchs's advising a Surgeon in Venereal Cases to cut out a Bubo from the Groin, for that he said, he would by that means eradicate the poison, which he supposed was conveyed in some way or other from the Genitals to the Inguinal Gland, & detained there. This the Dr says struck him immediately so that it came into his imagination, that the Lymphatic Vessels were the

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Concepts of the poison - Taking up the subject upon this supposition, he was by numerous Experiments & Observations soon convinced that he was right in his conjecture. Daily experience confirms the truth of this doctrine. Mercury applied to the Skin is absorbed, from thence carried into the Circulation & produces a Salivation - Garlic also may be absorbed from the Skin, & carried into the Vascular system, as is evident from it being perspired from the blood by the Kidneys along with the Urine, giving that its own particular Smell. After Venereal Infection, a Bubo arises in the Groin, in consequence of the poison's being detained in its passage thro' the Gland; if the Bubo suppurates, the poison is evacuated with the Contents of the Bubo, & no other Symptom for the most part arises, but if the poison pass thro' without occasioning a Bubo, or if the Bubo disperse, then other Symptoms make their appearance. We can even see the very Lymphatics by which the Poison is conveyed away, For from Venereal affection two kinds of Chordae may arise, the first & which is the most common happens in consequence of the Cavernous body of the Urethra being inflamed, so that the Penis when erected is drawn downwards in a Curve, the second is when the Penis seems to be bound round with a tight Cord, which is owing to a Lymphatic Vesicle being inflamed, that runs in that direction. If the infection be received by the finger, it is first carried to the Glands in the Axilla, if by the Mouth to the Glands in the Throat. Dr. Mackenzie after dissecting a dead body infected with the Venereal Disease, shewed Dr. Hunter, his Arm; there was a red streak extending from a small wound in his finger along the Fore Arm, which disappeared at the bend of the Joint, & appeared again above the Joint running into the Axilla where a Bubo was formed. Near Cancerous Ulcers these inflamed Lymphatics are often seen. When a Woman's Milk is going off

she is

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She is frequently seized with a Rigor, & febrile Symptoms come on in consequence of the Absorption of bad Milk into the Constitution, and it is no uncommon thing for her to have a Bubo in the Axilla. Any Ulcer furnishing a sharp Matter may occasion an inflammation of a Lymphatic Gland, to which the Lymphatics of that part where the Ulcer is situated, lead, indeed in such Cases these Glands are always more or less diseased. When from any Cause, these Glands are obstructed, the Lymphatic Vessels for instance, the Lymph will accumulate in them, and give the Appearance of a Bubo, & the Limb below will become Edematous, and when from distention the Gland bursts, the discharge will be Lymph, not Matter. In such Cases the Doctor to do nothing, he says that by degrees some other Lymphatic will dilate sufficiently, to carry off all the Lymph, and the part will heal itself. When the Limb is much swelled, dry Frictions may be recommended to promote this End. Besides explaining a considerable part of the Animal Economy, the Use of this System will be found in explaining a variety of Appearances, in Diseases, especially in the Scrophula, which is a disease in which the Lymphatic Glands are first, & principally affected. The common Opinion that the Scrophula is caused by a bad Humour in the body, and that that Humour is Hereditarily derived from Parents to Children is certainly without Foundation. Dr. Hunter says, he does not believe a Word of constitutional bad humours, & he thinks that the Blood is not at all affected in this disease, but that it is owing to a fault in the Lymphatic Vessels from their Orifices being too bilious, and absorbing improper Things; it is therefore a faulty Absorption that is the cause of this disease, and we commonly find the Scrophula attacks Children, and People of Sore Habits, and faint Complexions. If this doctrine be true, we perhaps at length hit on some Method of treating this disease more successfully than hitherto has been

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has been done. This will not consist in purging or carrying bad humours out of the constitution, but by correcting the faculty absorption. The remedies that have been found most effectual in this Disease were, to confirm this Doctrine, they are the Bark, and Sea-bathing, the first braces the body, and in some measure stops absorption, the other appears to act much in the same manner, while the shock from the frequent plunges in the sea may probably produce some change in the system. Sir Lucas Brien very lately informed Dr Keuter that it is the opinion in Ireland, that the scrophula is a Vermicular disease, and that in many scrophulous cases very small Worms had been found in the Divaric glands. Dr Keuter says, if this be true it serves to confirm his Doctrine of the Use of the lymphatics. For he supposes that this Ova must be absorbed from the surface of the body, by these Vessels, and lodged in the Conglobate or Lymphatic glands. Having now gone the round of Circulation and Absorption, we now proceed to another appendage to the Vascular System, to wit the various Glands.

The Glandular System.

Lecture. 7th

As there is daily a greater quantity of Chyle carried into the blood, than suffices for the nourishment of the body, it was necessary that the Redundancy should be thrown out together with such other particles of the blood, as were become noxious & useless, for this purpose were the various Glands, and also to prepare some particular fluids necessary for the animal Economy. It is difficult to define what a gland is. We mean by it, a circumscribed mass of flesh, made principally of Blood Vessels, whose office is to separate something from the blood. The Latins called them glandula, and glandes, which signify Bernels. The true structure of a gland is not known. All Anatomists till Malpighi's time had had a vague notion of these parts; they supposed, as we find from Galen, that they were a composition of spongy flesh, some of them made to support Blood Vessels, and some to strain off fluids from the blood: this Spongy texture they called Parenchyma, and supposed that the secreted fluid was strained thro' it in the same manner as water thro' sand, or a dipping Stone. Nothing more was known till Malpighi took up the Subject. He carried on his researches with great care by the help of Injections & Microscopes, and used Ink instead of wax for his Injections. He was of opinion, that the glands were principally composed of Blood Vessels, but that their Parenchyma was formed of small vessels or Bladders. Some of the glands he called simple glands, of this kind he says those little bags are, which are situated near the Root of the Tongue, & are surrounded with many small vivings of flesh. The Esophagus itself is only a Reservoir of a Slimy fluid secreted by the surrounding flesh, which is perfect out in Deglutition to facilitate the passage of the food. The Throat is lined with the same kind of glands. According to Malpighi's Dodding the Liver & other Glands were only

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were only compounded of these simple ones. In his Idea the little white & yellow bags resembling the grains in soft Soap, which are often observed on the surface of diseased Sweets, were only these Glands obstructed & enlarged. Until last Winter Dr Hunter says, he thought his Doctrine well supported. Ruysch, who was very anxious in Injection, was once of the same opinion that the Glands were Follicular, & that from each Follicle there went out an Excretory Duct, which uniting with other Ducts composed one common one, as the Duct Biliaris of the Liver. But afterwards he improved his injections, & then he thought that the Substance of the Sweet, and all the other Glands, was composed entirely of blood Vessels branching differently in different Glands, and so forming a different kind of Parenchyma. In the most minute injections of the Liver which Dr Hunter has been able to make, there were always Indistinctures to be seen not filled with the Injection: notwithstanding this seems to favour the opinion of Follicles, he is of opinion that the Glands are entirely Vascular. All Anatomists allowed the appearance of Cystids or Bags in the Kidney, but even these are proved to be empty Arteries. Mr Cruikshanks last Winter by injecting the Emulgent Artery not only filled the Vein, but the Excretory Vessels also, so that the Injection fairly passed into the bladder, which proves beyond a doubt that Ruysch was in the right. Ruysch was of opinion that every Gland was composed of an Artery, a Vein, & an Excretory Duct, that the Artery terminated partly in the Vein, & partly in the Excretory Duct, that the blood carried by the branches of the Artery was received by the branches of the Vein, and a liquor secreted from it by the excretory Vessels, or branches of the Excretory Duct: so that the Gland contained the two kinds of fluids, the blood & the liquor secreted from the blood: besides these Vessels in the Glands there must be Nerves, as the Mind has great influence over them.

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over them, which can only be by means of nerves; thus any one beholding a delicious morsel is said to have his mouth water, and the great quantity of pale Crude Urine, the urine Women make at the time of the Menstruation &c. are sufficient proofs. Dr. Nicholls describes two sorts of Glands, the first he calls Glands from Structure, the second he calls Glands ex officio, as a branch of an Artery opening upon any particular part; these are the same as the exhalant Arteries. We shall just mention some particularities which may be observed in different Glands. First Glands differ in form, some appear to be an uniform Mass, such as the Conglobate or Lymphatic Glands, Others appear to be made up of Clusters of these joined together by cellular Membrane, & are called Conglomerate Glands, such is the Salivary and Pancreas, secondly, they differ in Substance, some Glands when cut this appear to be wholly made of the same kind of flesh, in Others there appear to be two kinds of flesh, as in the Kidneys, the one kind is call'd Parenchyma, the other the Tubular part, thirdly, they differ as to the course of their Blood Vessels, in some Glands there is but what we may call one Center of Ramification from whence all the small branches seem to proceed as in the Kidney, Others have two as in the Liver, one for the branches of the Vena Portum and another for the Veins going to the Liva; and here we may just observe that the small branches of Blood Vessels never anastomose with each other in the Glands; fourthly, they differ in respect to their Excretory Ducts, some Glands, as the Liver have but one, some have many, The Breast has at least thirty which open upon the nipple. The Excretory Ducts for the most part regularly ramify like the Blood Vessels, but in some Glands, the Ducts for example, they ramify very irregularly becoming less & less as they approach the nipple. Some of the lower ends of these Tubules are so large within the Breast as to serve as Reservoirs for the Milk which can be pressed out at pleasure. The last difference we shall

The Glandular System

J. H. Jones

we shall make in Glands is, that Some Glands have a Bag, or Reservoir to contain the fluid secreted by them, Some have it situated close to them, as the Gall Bladder is to the Liver, Others have it at some distance, for example, the Urinary Bladder from the Kidneys, while several Glands namely the Salivary, the Pancreas have none at all, — A Variety of Opinions have arisen on the manner in which the Glands perform their Office, for a long time it was supposed to be done by straining, till the Moderns accounted for it in different ways, Some of them thought it was done by Filtration, thus that it depended on a particular Size & figure of the Solidity of vessels made capable of receiving particles only of a figure corresponding with these Vessels, as triangular, Quadrangular &c. — But according to these Theories, the Glands must be all soon obstructed — There are two general Opinions at present among the Moderns, the first is, that the different Secretions are only strained from the blood, that is, they before existed in the blood — For example they say Milk is nothing more, than Chyle, which is carried to the Breast by a Strainer just the blood, but changed in its nature & properties — The Mechanical Physiologists have embraced the first of these opinions, the Chymists the last, D^r Haller says he was taught to believe that they all existed in the blood, & were only separated from it, as many things commonly allowed as Facts were tried to prove, such as Milk was only Chyle, which was contained in the blood in greater quantity after a meal, &c. blood drawn at this time will be found to have its colour white like Milk: that Animals living upon Vegetables will have their Milk acrid, but that on the other hand the Milk of Carnivorous Animals never sour, but becomes putrescent — To prove the truth of this last Opinion, M^r John Hunter fed a Bitch with flesh & water only, for several days together, & he found that her Milk grew sour as soon as the Milk of those Animals that feed entirely upon Vegetables — D^r Hunter believes that there is in most Glands — not only a straining of a fluid from the blood, but as the Chymists term it

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term it, there is a Decomposition of the old materials, & a new Assemblage of the new. He supposes that our Secretions are of two kinds, first that those Secretions, which are excrementitious or to be thrown out of the body are only, strained from the blood which is all that seems necessary for this passage out of the body; but that the excrementitious ones, or those which are to be retained, & again mixed with the blood, are not only strained, but also changed in their nature & properties. This is an animal function, we shall probably never comprehend. We can easily perceive more operation to be made by supposing the particles of different sizes in the blood, which may be strained thro' Vessels of different Diameters, & when the large particles are wanted, the smaller may be, carried off by Vessels appointed to receive them, & again be mixed with the mass of blood. Some have imagined that the Secretion of the Glands depended upon the Attraction of one fluid to another of the same kind, that our Mother has originally impregnated our Glands with the same kind of fluid it was destined to secrete, which would admit no particles, but those of the same kind thro' it, as we observe Paper oiled will not let water pass thro' its pores; Others that it was a particular Attraction between the Solids & Fluids, that Glands which were of one Density, could not attract fluids of the same Density. The Change wh^{ch} I say it is, we are unacquainted with, we can no more imitate it than we can the Circulation, so that as Dr Hale supposes, there seems to be something upon this. We may observe in general on Glandular Secretions, that there may be a previous preparation of the blood for that purpose, as appears from the Vena Portarum performing the Office of an Artery in carrying the Blood to the Liver. The next Step is the actual Operation, the next the change produced in the fluid, & the next the carrying it to its proper Receptacle by the Excretory Vessels, there is also Absorption from the Glands, and as Dr Nicholls has observed, if we blow

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if we blow into the Excretory Ducts of a Gland (the Bile Biliaire of the Liver for instance) we shall fill the Lymphatics. In health the Secretions seem to go on pretty regularly, Some are only made at particular times, or else they are greatly increased as that of the Milk in Women that are with Child, or give Suck: and we may need observe, that in proportion as some of the Secretions are increased, others are diminished, this is most manifest in the secretion of the excrementitious part of the blood, for example, let a Person drink a large quantity of water, that water is carried into the blood, now if the Weather and Body be warm, the greatest part of that water will pass off by the pores of the skin, but if the Weather and Body be cold, the greatest part will run off by the Kidneys. Disturbance from external or internal things, as void in the eye or violent affection of the mind will variously affect the Secretions, some Medicines act indiscriminately in increasing various Secretions, which may in a great measure depend on particular Circumstances, others will act generally on some particular One, as Diuretics on the Kidneys. The last Observation we shall make is, that the Motion of the Glands, particularly of the Motion increase the Secretions.

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We have already described the Vessels, which carry a nutritious juice thro' throughout the body for its support; also the Vessels which bring it into the road of Circulation together with the Absorbing & Separating System. There are parts which Vegetables possess in common with Animals, but there is another which Animals alone are endowed with owing to Sensation & Motion. This System is the least understood of any in the body, indeed if we understood it perfectly, we should know the nature of the Union between the Soul & the Body. The Brain the source & soul of this System is a Substance of a very particular nature, contained in the Cavity of the Skull, it has an appendage, or continuation of its Substance out of the Skull, called the Spinal Marrow. That part of the Brain which the Skull contains is called the Encephalon and is divided into three parts. The Cerebrum which is by much the largest the Cerebellum & Medulla Oblongata. The Brain is covered by two Membranes or Coats, the outermost is a tough, tendinous Substance, pretty thick, and having but few Vessels, that carry red blood, appears white, its inner surface is smoothly polished, and lays loose on the Pia Mater, its outer surface adheres very firmly to the Skull, it is called Dura Mater; & within this is the Pia Mater so called from its tender make, its outer surface next the Dura Mater is very smooth & has the appearance of Satin, next the Brain it is very rough and full of processes that insinuate themselves between the Convolutions of the Brain, & are every where attached to it. This Membrane is very vascular especially on its inside. These two Membranes were called Dura & Pia Mater because all the Membranes in the body were supposed to be derived from them. The Substance of the Brain is very tender, & exceedingly vascular, it is of two different Colours, the outside called the Cortical part is of a brown

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is of a brown, the inside called the Medullary is of a whitish colour — the Medullary Substance of the Cerebrum, Cerebellum and together form the Medulla Oblongata, which continued makes the Medulla Spinalis, so that the Spinal Marrow is only a continuation of the whole Mass; it is from this Medullary part of the Brain that all the Nerves are formed — The Nerves are the Instruments by which the Communication is kept up between the Mind and the body; they are strong, white Cord's arising from the Brain or its Appendages, and branched to all parts of the body; It is a common Opinion that the Nerves are a continuation of the Medullary Substance, and that the Coats of the Brain are continued over them as a covering — If we endeavour to trace the Nerves from their Origin, we shall find, particularly in the Spinal Marrow, that they arise by separate threads, and in passing thro' the Coats of the Medulla Spinalis unite into strong Cord's — In endeavouring to trace them upwards, we lose them in the Medullary Substance, so cannot tell, whether they arise from the fore, back, or middle part — Anatomists suppose the Nerves originate in the Opposite part to that where they came from decussating one another, because it has been observed Hemiplegia happens to the right side of the body, when the Injury is done to the left side of the Brain, & Vice Versa — All the Cases I Recollect have been confirm this Doctrine — Anatomists suppose that the Medullary Substance is the same all over the body, & that the Continuations of the Coats of the Brain form their Coverings, but this can be only traced in the Optic Nerve — The Nervous Filaments which arise from the Medulla Spinalis, unite and form larger Nerves, as was said before; it appears that a number of these Nervous Filaments are, not only united in one common Coat, or covering from the Dura Mater, but each particular filament has its proper Coat — The Nerves are very strong, and their Strength consists in this covering — Some of the Nerves

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Nerves are very small, and others very considerable, they branch in a regular manner becoming smaller & smaller, & are distributed to every part of the body. Every Nerve that we can trace appears evidently to be composed of a number of smaller nervous filaments, these filaments are very easily seen, and separated in the *Cauda Equina*. The filaments of the constituted nerves have been supposed not to exceed the 3000th part of an extended diameter. From many Arguments to prove their surpassing smallness, we shall only mention one, which is that every nervous filament appears to have its own peculiar sense of feeling, & therefore every point of the Skin has its distinct Nerve forming a distinct Thread from beginning to end, & therefore every point of the body has a nervous thread running to the Brain. The Nerves always rise in pairs from the Brain every part of the body has its pair of Nerves: We may suppose the body to be divided by a mathematical line, passing down the middle of the Head & spine perpendicularly when the body is erect. People, who have an Hemiplegia will exactly describe this line, saying that from the middle of the Nose, Forehead, & other parts of the face, to the middle of the hinder part of the Head on one side, they are cold, & on the other side they are warmer. They generally run with the Blood Vessels, but not from their beginning at the Heart, because they take their Origin from a different part of the body, they meet with them in their course, & those of the Arm join with the Artery of the Axilla, and the great Nerve, which comes to the Thigh & Leg comes from the Os Sacrum, passes down the back part of the thigh & joins the Artery at the Ham. They also carry somewhat like the Blood Vessels, but their ramifications are only separations of the larger Nerves into smaller. The branches of the Nerves intermix with each other somewhat Analogous to Anastomoses in the Blood Vessels, which is called the branching of the Nerve, or the communication

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communication between them. When great numbers of these branches run together in all directions similar to the Net Work or ramification of the Blood Vessels, they are called Plexuses. In most parts of the body the Nerves ramify like the Blood Vessels, but in the Viscera they run in a different manner not entering them by separate Trunks, but in the form of Plexuses, which is very particular, for this reason, these Nerves are not so well understood as in other parts. We may observe in general of the Nerve, that they do not vary their course in different Subjects near so much as the Blood Vessels. We are next to consider the Ganglions; the word Ganglion is used in two different Senses, in a Chirurgial Sense & in an Anatomical one. In a Chirurgial Sense it means an encysted Tumour on a Tendon, commonly containing a glaucous fluid & is a disease; in an Anatomical Sense it means a little Lump or Swelling of some particular Nerve, and is a natural appearance. Ganglions are very conspicuous on the Nerves of the Viscera, the largest in the body is found on the first Cervical Nerve they abound in the Intercostal ones. The Structure of the Ganglions has not been made out in a satisfactory Manner. There have been two opinions concerning this, and their Use. One, that a Ganglion was a Comprage of Muscular fibres to contract upon the Nerve, and thereby affect the Nervous faculties. the Other, that it was a little Appendix to the Brain, serving to produce fresh Nervous filaments, which is quite idle. They contain a great Number of Vessels, & appear when injured to be almost wholly Vascular. NB. It is not advisable to open the tumefied (or Chirurgial) Ganglions, it commonly produces much fever and inflammation, and the wound heals up unkindly; if left to themselves after a time, the Skin that encloses the glaucous fluid, becomes thinner & inflames & is painful, & they burst into the Cellulæ.

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Cellular Membrane, the fluid matter is absorbed by the Patient does well. A small blow on the Gargle, if it is sufficient to burst the cyst, will almost always effect ^{the} a cure. We are next to consider the use of the Nerves. The Nerves are the Organs of Communication between the Mind & the Body. They serve two purposes, first to bring knowledge to the Mind of what passes without the body, hence out, & secondly to be the means by the which the Mind and Body are united, serving to raise Ideas & Perceptions in the Mind, and to transmit her Commands throughout the Body.

To establish what has been said it is necessary to mention some Facts: that the Nerves have a Communication with the Brain is plain from this, if the Optic Nerves of an Animal are cut, she is deprived of Sight, if the Spinal Nerve be cut he cannot walk nor feel in that Limb to which the nerve is sent, because it has lost its communication with the Brain, and the same effect will follow if the Brain be pressed on in the part whence the Nerves come, for the part to which these Nerves go will lose its feeling & power of Motion, as is the case in an apoplexy from an extravasation of blood in the Brain.

The common Opinion is that there is a Sensorium Common lodged in the Brain, but some on the contrary have imagined that the Mind is not confined to any part in particular, but diffused thro the whole body. It seems most likely that there is a Sensorium Common & upon cutting a nerve in any part, that part becomes Paralytic which is below the division, which would not be the case if the Mind was diffused all over the body. Another Fact seems to prove this, every part of the body has its proper Nerves, now when a Limb

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Limit is taken off, the Corporeal Frame is not induried, yet the Mind is, and if from any cause the End of these Nerves which were continued to the Extremity of the Limb before it was cut off, should be disagreeably affected, the Patient feels a Sensation, similar to that he would have felt in that particular part, where those Nerves terminated when the Limb was not taken off. The knowledge we receive by our Sensations is not innate or born with us, but is acquired by experience. For example, a young Child runs its finger into the flame of a candle, it feels the pain, but knows not the part hurt, & will again apply its finger to the flame, till he finds by Experience that it is hurt full; so also in a grown person, the particular part that is affected in all deep seated pains, he cant point out, because not seeing them, he cannot tell by Experience where the pain lies. Irritation upon the Nerves produces very irregular & involuntary Motions of the Muscles, and Convulsions. Some Anatomists have asserted that as there are two functions belonging to the Nerves (that of conveying knowledge to the Mind, and that by which the Mind acts on the body) one of these functions may be destroyed and not the other; for example they say a Case sometimes happens, in which Muscular Motion or the feeling of a part subsists entire, and yet all feeling in that part shall be utterly destroyed. On the other hand that sometimes the Sense of feeling shall remain unhurt, yet the Motion of that part shall be entirely lost. Dr Hunter thinks it may be justly doubted (as every nerve appears to have its peculiar Office) whether in the first all the Nerves of that part were destroyed, or only those appropriated to the Sense of feeling, and in the other Case whether those Nerves which were for Muscular Motion were not the

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not the only, one lost or rendered useless. Physiologists have made mention of another Phenomenon in the Nervous System called Sympathy between the Nervous Affections; thus a Person taking a pinch of Snuff irritates the inner Membrane of the Nostrils, and immediately, the Muscles serving to Respiration are excited, so that they produce a violent expiration to throw off the Offending Matter, by passing thro' the Nose the breath dislodges the Snuff from the irritated part, and Sneezing is caused to ensue. This Sympathy of the Nervous Affection has been accounted for by saying, there is a communication between the Nerves of those parts which sympathize with each other: this Opinion is now however given up. One great Objection to it is, that there are so many communications between the Nerves of different parts, that was Sympathy to be occasioned by the above cause, there would be such a Variety at the same time as would create confusion. At one time in France it was accounted for from just as a position, that is that Sympathy was occasioned between two parts, which had the Nerves arising from the same part of the Brain but this appears to be by no means the Case. According to the plan laid down, we should next proceed to explain the principles of Action which subsists between the two Systems by means of the Nerves, or in other words to explain the Mode between the Soul and Body, but this we are entirely ignorant of. Some have supposed that the Brain was a Gland that excreted a fluid called Animal Spirits, & that the Nerves were the Excretory ducts, that this fluid was thrown from the Brain to produce Motion in any part, and that it was thrown from the parts on the Brain to produce Sensation: Others suppose them to be Solid Cords, and that they were acted upon as the strings of a Musical Instrument as by Vibrations being excited. We should

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remember a very great discovery that had been made of late years, that of Electricity, which has led us to the knowledge of many surprising phenomena. Suppose the maker of an Electrical Machine shows it to a man entirely ignorant of its nature, who never heard of Electricity, how would he reason concerning it? he sees the Machine wound up, & he receives the Shock; why, he says, tho' he is ignorant of the Structure of the Machine, he is convinced it acts upon Mechanical principles, because he has no Ideas of powers Superior to those; for the same reason he explains the Stroke from the Torpedo, or Stambing Fish upon the same principle, which is now proved to have an Electric Matter lodged in it; Just in the same manner some endeavour to account for the principles of Action between the Soul & Body; It appears to be effected by Powers altogether unknown to us, exceeding different from all Mechanical Ones, and of which it is highly probable we shall always remain ignorant — N.B. The Arm has five principal Nerves and a Short one that surrounds the Articulation of the Shoulder. Having now considered the two great Systems, the Vascular & Nervous, we shall next consider the Cellular Membrane —

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This is the soft connecting medium between all parts of the body uniting Muscles, Vessels, Nerves, Bones &c. in short all the several parts together. The Cellular Membrane in some parts contains Fat, as that under the Skin &c. but in other parts as the Eye Lid, Scrotum &c. it does not. whether it contains Fat or not, it is every where ductile, & the connecting two parts, it suffers them to move with ease. Every thing in the Body adheres by this Substance, called by Anatomists by three different names, the Cellular, Adipose, & Peticular Membrane, if we take a piece of it which contains no Fat, blow it up and dry it as a piece of the Peridium for example, it appears to be a composition of fibres, & little membranes forming a very light net-work, with junctions between them called Cells, by blowing it up it is true it is enlarged, & by having its junctions stretched and made bigger by removal of the fine fibres being broken thro', it appears more porous than naturally it is, & by drying the fibres they lose their bulk considerably, & seem slighter. When viewed in a wet preparation or as it is in the body, it seems to be a much closer net-work composed of fibres exceedingly minute, & the junctions between them very small indeed. The general opinion is, that it is a net-work, because it is porous, and that it is Cellular, but Cellular is rather a bad name, because it conveys the idea of a cavity every where surrounded. Peticular is a better, & more expressive appellation than the former, & the Term Adipose will do for that which contains Fat, but not for all; it may be necessary to detain all the three in describing its appearance in the several parts of the body, & when speaking of it generally, or altogether, we will call it Cellular, and that species of it which lies under the Skin, and contains the Fat, we will call Adipose; when there is no Fat, as in the Eye-lid &c. we will call it Peticular Membrane, thus we

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thus we shall say that in the Penis it is Peticular, and the parts surrounding the Pictum, that it is Adipose. We must conceive in our imaginations that the Lamina of our bodies is inorganic, for instance if we examine the coat of an artery, we shall find it still composed of still smaller Vessels, and these probably of others still smaller, yet we should conceive that we must at last come to a portion of Matter inorganic or not composed of Vessels, but these are so exceedingly small that they cannot be examined. Therefore it is best to consider every part of the Body essentially organic or composed of Vessels. The Cellular Membrane is made up of a mixture of arteries, veins, lymphatics & nerves scattered all over it; it appears to have but few Vessels that carry red blood, the far greater part carrying only Serum in their Radical State, but as we have observed before these Arrows Vessels may by inflammation be made to carry red blood, that the Cellular Membrane and particularly the Adipose is exceeding vascular, we can demonstrate by filling the Vessels with a 20 millionth Injection, so that it appears all over red. Haller supposed that the preternatural adhesions which were formed in the body in consequence of inflammation are inorganic, for example in the Empneumony & Pleurisy when the inflamed parts throw out a Mucus which makes adhesions, that they were not composed of Vessels, but these Adhesions formed according to Haller from Mucus thrown out from the inflamed Vessels Dr Meadier finds in the Cellular Membrane, and so far from being inorganic they are exceeding vascular; indeed when a new Substance is to be formed in the body, nature always makes it shoot in the form of Vessels: The very Callus that cements a broken Bone, or a Cicatrice are very vascular and may be minutely injected. Every part appears to be organic, the blood which produces the skin out parts. Mr John Hunter has found will have Vessels formed within itself. The Cellular Membrane then may be said to be a composition of thread, a little Strings so weaved together in a kind of

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kind of network, as to leave porositities between them, & these threads are entirely composed of Lymph. It is universally scattered throughout the body connecting all parts that have a cohesion together, it unites the skin to the muscles, the muscles to each other, it covers not only the muscles in general, but every fibre of a muscle in particular, it pervades all parts of the body, to an inconceivable degree of minuteness, in short it is the universal connecting medium throughout the body. Dr Hunter says it constitutes at least one half of the body, as he believes much more. Many Anatomists called that stratum round a muscle, *Membrana Communis Muscularum*, but this need not be, particularly called Membrane; and they call the Cellular Membrane surrounding an Artery & Vein, the Cellular Coat, but this we have rejected. Let us now consider the appearances in some diseases as far as they regard this substance. In the first place we would observe that the pores & interstices of the Cellular Membrane communicate with each other and that they are always naturally a little moist. We may easily conceive a redundancy of this fluid may happen from various causes so as to fill the interstices, & form what is called Anasarca, or Pseudo-phlegmatic Dropsy, in this disease the Legs & Feet first begin to swell of a night, but in the morning the swelling is abated, because all the interstices communicating with each other the water by its gravity tends to the lower parts which are the Legs & Feet when the body is erect as it commonly is during the day, & when the body is in an horizontal position, the water will return in great part from the Legs to the Trunk, & thence it happens that in the morning the swelling in the Legs is less; as this redundancy increases, the swelling runs up to the Trunk, Arms & till it overflows all the Cellular Membrane the interstices being full the skin will have the feel of Dough or Sponge, & by pressing on it with the finger, the water is pressed into the height; covering Cells, leaving a pit which disappears gradually as the water returns.

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By there being a Communication of Cells we see the reason why, Scarifications let out this Water, and as the Water makes its Way thro' the several Cells but gradually, we find that it does not flow thro' the puncture in a stream but issues out very slowly. The Watery Interstitial fluid has sometimes been found changed into a gelatinous Substance, the reason of which is not known. In the living body other fluids may be thrown into the interstices, and will run thro' them as the Water does, Blood for instance may be extravasated from a ruptured Vessel under the Skin into the Cellular Membrane, & often makes a black Mark of considerable extent; this is particularly the Case from a black Eye, the Cellular Membrane of that part being of a very loose texture. A Man was taken into St. George's Hospital for the Gun: Shot of the Arm, in bleeding, the Wound that bled him had by compression stopp'd the Bleeding outwardly, but the blood had got into the Cellular Membrane of the Arm, making the appearance of a blood pudding; there was so great a quantity of blood thus lost out of the Vessels, and the Man so weak in consequence of that loss (tho' still within the body) that he died the next Morning, for the blood being gone out of the road of the Circulation might as well have been out of the body. As Water, Blood may be accumulated & extravasated in the Cellular Membrane, so likewise Air may. There are two Cases principally in which we see this Collection of Air in the Cellular Membrane, the first & most common one is in Mortification; in this disease the limb often becomes puffy with a springy Swelling from the putrefaction letting loose a quantity of fixed Air, which getting into the Cells is supposed to occasion this Appearance, indeed this Appearance may be considered as a sure Mark, that the Mortification will spread farther if it arise above that already mortified, for we may be certain that a Mortification is not stopp'd, if the limb becomes still more.

still more Emphysematous: the other case is, when People have a penetrating wound into the Lungs or Trachea; and this appearance is a certain Sign, that a Wound has penetrated the Cavity of the Chest & wounded the Lungs; if a Wound penetrates the Chest & the Lungs are wounded, the Air that passes into the Lungs by Inspiration finds a passage thro' the Wound into the Chest in Expiration, and would pass out thro' the external Wound if it were big enough, but this commonly being small, the Skin prevents the Air from getting out, & obliges it to pass into the Cellular Membrane where it makes a swelling as before described, at first only round the Wound in the Skin, but as the same thing happens in every Expiration the swelling is increased till it at last overspreads the whole body, this is called Emphysema; the Skin when handled makes so remarkable a crackling Noise, that a Person who has once noted it, cannot be afterwards deceived. Dr Hunter related the Case of a Man at Amherst, who had an Emphysema from the Spicular of a broken Rib having wounded the Lungs, it extended all over the body, which was thereby quite out of form, and sounded like a Drum if tapped upon, his Eyes lids were closed, & his Scrotum swelled to an enormous Size, in what he resembled a Skin blown up more than a Man; he was relieved by making an incision on the broken Rib thro' the Skin to give free passage to the Air from the Lungs, & by rubbing the Skin with their hands oiled towards the Heart, the Air was pressed out from the other parts of the body just making a puncture or two in the Scrotum: when the incision was first made in the Skin, the Air rushed out as Air does from a pair of Balloons compressed & Abscesses, which are always observed to be found in the Cellular Membrane are not supposed never to happen in Muscles for they certainly do, but then it is in the Cellular Membrane of the Muscle or of whatever part the Abscess is seated in, so that we may say, that this Membrane is the receptacle of matter, and general Seat of an Abscess. It may be asked, why does not matter diffuse itself all over the body, in the same manner as Water or Air does when

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does when extravasated in the Cellular Membrane. To this it may be now added, that Collections of Matter are always preceded by inflammation, & it is the Nature of inflammation to unite parts, so that all the little Surfaces where the inflammation spreads are glued together making that part of the Cellular Membrane hard & compact, thus when Blisters are applied to the Dorsal Leg of a Dog, by that means the Cuticle removed, the true skin may be compressed to a wet Cloth, which suffers the Water to drip thro' it, but when from irritation an inflammation comes on, no more Water will ooze thro' it. Matter in an Abscess by following the Course of the Cellular Membrane will dissect parts, as if done with a knife. We observe it always endeavours to make its way to the most depending parts, because its own gravity assists its descent, & it always points outwards because, as other fluids, so it prefers equally every way, the bones & other internal parts make most resistance to its progress, and therefore it is disposed to point towards the Skin, but in a Running that has terminated in Suppuration, if there be Adhesions of the Surge with the Pleura, the Matter meeting with great resistance from the Intercostals, Ribs & Integuments, will make its way into the Surge & be expelled by them, generally however proving fatal by bringing on a Pulmonary Consumption. The Reason why Fistulas of wounds that have been open for a length of time, are hollow, hard & stuck down to the bones so as to be immovable, is this, because the long continued inflammation necessarily attendant on the wound cicatrises the Cellular Membrane, makes it hard & no longer ductile, as we see is the case in those parts where Issues have been in the Arm, & where Scrophulous Ulcers have healed. We shall now consider the Adipose Membrane. It is the general Opinion that the Adipose or Animal Oil when separated from the blood is lodged in the Cells of the Cellular Membrane, but Dr Hunter says, he is very sure that it is not lodged in those Cells, where Water &c. is ^{sometimes} collected, but that it is lodged

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lodged in little & separate bags which do not communicate with each other, for if we press on the Skin & by that means on the Adipose Membrane, we do not find the Oil accede into the surrounding Cells, as water does in the Reticular Membrane, as it is observed that in some parts, the Testicles & Scrotum for instance, there is never any Oil seen, but water is often seen here; so that besides the Reticular texture there are bags containing Oil, strained off from the bone, as deposited in them which is taken up again occasionally. If a hole be made in the Cellular Membrane and Mergol's Ointment be injected into it, while it is kept fluid it may be pressed out of some Cells into others, as water may, which shews that the Adipose is deposited in that part only of the Cellular Membrane, that is fitted to receive it. This Oil has different consistence at different periods of life, and in different Animals. In an Ox, it is firm, called Suet, in a Hog it is a soft sassage, similar to which is the Human Oil. In a Child there is no Fat, at least not in a young One. The first fat we have in our constitution is immediately under the Skin & there alone. In young Children there is commonly a great quantity of it under the Skin, & hardly any in the other parts of the body, but as we grow up it is more equally distributed, the proportion of that under the Skin diminishing as the quantity of it in other parts increases, and as this Oil is exceedingly troublesome in dry preparations, by the frictions it occasions, we generally shew young Subjects for this purpose. In the body there is always to be found some Oil after Death, except in one case only, the inveterate old standing Dropsy, such a Subject is very proper for a dry preparation. In general we may observe that ease of Mind and Body with good food disposes People to be fat & Vice Versa. Dr Hunter says he is sensible from experience, that being fat depends in great measure upon the Mind; People of an Analous Temper & great Sensibility who exercise the Mind much are never fat. One great Use of the Cellular Membrane has already been explained, which is to unite all

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unite all the parts in such a manner as to allow them to move upon one another with freedom where motion is required, in some places it serves as a cushion of defence to the parts underneath, from pressure as on the Buttocks, Sole of the Foot where considerable pressure is applied & therefore a great quantity of this Substance is provided. Almost all Writers on this Subject speak of its serving to fill up all the interstices of the Muscles, & thereby to give a more beautiful form to the body, but it is probable our Maker consulted the use and not beauty, when he chooses this uniting Medium. Another great Use of the Cellular Membrane is to serve as a Reservoir for the Animal Oil, which is supposed to be wanted for some purpose in the Constitution; Suppose in a full grown Man 40 pounds of it was wanted for the Animal Economy, we may admire the wisdom of the Creator in not lodging it in one Bag or Reservoir in any part, for as it is now placed it serves as a case or covering to the body to defend it from cold, which appears to be the reason why fat People bear cold better than lean ones, the sole difference in them consisting in the fat alone, the Muscular fibres & other parts being alike in both. The last Use of this Animal Oil that we shall mention is, to keep up an equality of Nutrition, in its nature it appears analogous to the Express'd Oil of Vegetables, in our bodies Nutrition goes equally on whether we eat much or little food, hence when our diet is too scanty, part of the Oil is Absorbed to make up the deficiency and we become blear. Instances are not wanting of persons who have lived ten or twelve days without food, being all that time supported by this Oil only —

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Lecture. 10th

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Besides what have already been described, there are in the body, Organs of motion having their functions produced from an internal cause, & these Organs are called Muscles, of which we will in the first place speak Anatomically and then Physiologically. A Muscle means a mass of thready flesh, or bundle of threads which are cavity separated from one another, and in a living body shorten themselves to produce Motion. Some of the Muscles are under the command of the Will, & some are not, those which are, under such command are called Voluntary Muscles, those which are not, are called involuntary ones. It is commonly thought to be a discovery of the Moderns, that there are some which are, & some which are not. Galen, all the Greek Writers define them Voluntary, & say, that the Heart, over which they observe the Will had no power, is no Muscle; indeed the Heart perhaps may be a different Organ, & have an action different from a Muscle, for it acts incessantly without tiring. From observing the peculiarity of this part Galen might very easily conclude it to be no Muscle. The principal part of a Muscle is composed of threads so fine, that they cannot be traced singly; these fibres in different Muscles are collected differently & bound together in Fasciculi or little bundles by the Cellular Membrane, all the Muscles then are made of a number of fibres connected with one another in Fasciculi by means of the Cellular Membrane, with more or less of fat upon their surfaces, & in the Intervallies of their Fasciculi as the Animal is fatter or leaner. This division of fibres descends to an inconceivable degree of minuteness. Some have supposed every fibre of a Muscle to be a string of bodies like beads in Shape; but as the constituent fibres are so small as not to be seen distinctly with the best Microscope, it is impossible to know what they resemble; we find in
a muscle,

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a Muscle, Arteries, Veins & Nerves, their action depends upon the blood in the Vessels, for by frequent Washing it may be almost all got out, & the Muscle will then appear as white as fat, hence the difference of their colour in different people. The quantity of blood carried to a Muscle does not seem to be entirely for its nourishment, but Muscular Motion also seems to depend thereon. If a Limb be cut off that has been long useless, hardly any Muscular flesh is to be seen in the Stump, for the Limb is shrunk, & whiter than one which is constantly in Action, which makes it evident, that blood is carried to a Muscle in proportion to its action. The blood Vessels of the Muscles are very numerous, the larger branches commonly run deep in the body of the Muscle in every direction, having no Order of Ramification as in Glands. Besides the fibres of a Muscle visible in this collected state and the blood Vessels, they have Nerves which commonly run with the blood Vessels. It was a common opinion, that a Nerve deposits its covering which it has from the Dura Mater in the part to which it is distributed, & that the Nerves on this account were soft & pappy in Muscles, but this is a mere Hypothesis, for as we can trace them in a Muscle they are as firm as in any other part. It appears that some Muscles have a greater quantity of Nerves than others, & this in proportion to their use, which has given rise to an opinion, that the Nerves are distributed in proportion as the Muscles are more or less designed for Action, for example, the Eye is said to have a greater number of Nerves than the Arm, which last is not so constantly in Action as the Eye, but on the other hand, the Heart, which acts the most frequently & constantly of any Muscle in the body, has not so many Nerves in proportion to its bulk as the Eye, & partly in the structure of a Muscle, we must suppose that there are a great number of lymphatic Vessels, this we cannot well distinguish them, I think only surfaces commonly, on which we can find them so as to shew them plainly, we shall next consider an Appendage to the Muscles,

The Tendon

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the Tendon, according to the old doctrine a muscle was divided into two parts, the Belly, & the Tendon. The Tendons were supposed to be composed of fibres running in the same direction as those in the Belly of the muscle, & connected together by cellular membrane so that is, it was further supposed that the number of fibres were the same in the Tendon & Belly, that one continued fibre ran the whole length of the Belly & Tendon, but thicker in the Belly, as having more Arteries, Veins, Nerves, & Cellular Membrane than in the Tendon. Tendons are in fact in cords composed of fibres running lengthwise connected together with cellular membrane, found to be capillary & vascular by injection, but have only few vessels that carry blood, & but few nerves. It was a common opinion that as we grow up, the muscular fibres shorten, & the Tendon grows longer, but this is not true, indeed a thickening or gummyness may be observed about the joints of young people, which depends entirely on the cellular membrane. The opinion of the fleshy & tendinous fibres being the same continued ones, so that the number of them in the tendinous & fleshy part is equal, appears to be ill grounded, for the tendinous fibres & fleshy ones are differently arranged in the same muscle, in some parts, as in the Temporal muscle for instance. Dr. Hunter says, that he is convinced that the Tendons & Muscles are distinct Substances, as the Muscles of Bones are. The Tendons have no power of contraction. They may be considered much, as Chords fixed to the Muscle; Nature, to answer some particular purpose, having made use of an Agent to direct the moving power & the power to be moved. Some Muscles have no Tendons, because there is no occasion for them. The Use of the Muscles is next to be considered. A muscle acts simply, by shortening & lengthening itself, by shortening itself it moves the part it is attached to either immediately, with a Tendon or immediately without one, its contraction depends upon the Muscular fibres alone, the cellular membrane only serves to unite the fibres together, the blood to nourish it & perhaps something more, the

nerves act

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nerves not only serve for sensation, but also bring the power for moving it, the Tendons serve as Chords to unite them to particular parts; it may be asked why were Tendons made, & not the Muscular flesh continued on from one end to the other. The Ancients supposed they were made for the better uniting of Muscles to bones, that bone was of too hard a nature to admit a substance so soft as Muscular flesh to be united to it; that a Tendon being of an intermediate nature between bone & flesh, was therefore the properest substance to unite them, lest had they looked on the firm Adhesion between some Muscles & bone without the intervention of a Tendon, they would have found this to be an Error. A Tendon being more compact than a Muscle, is used where Muscular fibres would have been too bulky & hindered the Motion of the part, for instance it was necessary that the Flexor Muscles of the hand & fingers should be very strong, & a considerable Mass of Muscular flesh would have been very inconvenient in the Wrist & Fingers, the Muscles are removed at a distance, & Tendons made use of, which taking up but little room, freedom is allowed for Motion. For the same reason when a Muscle runs over a joint, that part which moves upon a bone is always Tendinous. Tendon bears friction much better than Muscular flesh, which is another reason, why the belly of a Muscle never plays immediately upon a joint. Some of the Muscles pass under the Bones, they only enter the Perosteum, some are united without Cartilages, & these fixed into soft parts, as the Tongue. Muscles may be divided into three different Classes, and these subdivided into Genera & Species. of the first Class is the Oblique, the second, the Volvular Muscle, & the third may be called the Mixed Class, partly hollow & partly Oblong. of the Oblique Muscle there are many different Species, if all the fibres of a Muscle were to run parallel to each other, it might perfectly be called a rectilinear Muscle, but as there is not an instance of this kind on the body, that which approaches the nearest to it is the Sartorius, and the Pinniform Muscle is the One most commonly used in the body, of this there are several.

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are several kinds; its fibres run parallel to each other, but obliquely to the axis of the muscle. The half Penniform has Oblique fibres on one side only, as the Floor Pollicis longus, the two half Penniform joined as the Ligamentum, or any muscles of them joined as the Deltoid. To consider the reason for which muscles are penniform, they need only be explained upon mechanical principles, and we should always observe if this Phenomenon agrees with the Theory, if they do not, we may be assured that the Theory, however specious, is false. Those fibres whose muscles are merely rectilinear, will have a greater length of fibres than the Penniform muscle, that is they will move a body farther than the oblique ones, but with much less force. Muscles are called Radiated when their fibres run to a Center, as in the Diaphragm. The fibres of hollow muscles have a variety of directions, in some they are regularly circular, as in the Intestines, in the Heart they form a kind of double Circle or figure of 8. By the mixed Class we mean those, which sometimes act as hollow muscles, & sometimes like oblong ones, of this kind are the Abdominal muscles, they act as hollow ones when they gird the belly, & as straight ones when they bend the body forward. It has been common to call the End of a muscle which is least moved its Origin, & the other end its Insertion, but as this may sometimes lead us into an error, it will be better to speak of them by the general Names of Attachment. Anatomists generally divide the muscles into different Classes, but this division is neither regular, nor certain. Some muscles had names given very early, but the generality were not named till after the time of Vesalius. They generally derive their Names from their several uses, thus there is the Class of Inspiratory muscles, and this is subdivided into two, first those for Inspiration which raise the Lungs, and secondly those for Expiration. And of the third there is the Extensors, the Flexors, the Lateral ones, & those which serve for Rotatory motion. We should be particularly careful to distinguish these

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Those Muscles which arise to the Motion of a part from those which move a part, for instance, the Muscles which move the Leg, lie upon the Thigh, and those which move the Thigh, lie upon the lower part of the Trunk, likewise the Muscles which move the Forearm, lie upon the Arm. Authors not attending to this in describing Laves have frequently left us doubtful of their meanings. The Appendage of a Muscle, a Tendon, we have already taken notice of, another Appendage is a thin Expansion of a Tendon called a Fascia, there is also another Appendage, a Pulley, as the Trochlea M^{us} which the Superior oblique Muscle of the Eye moves by, it's Tendon is another Appendage. Still is made by the annular Ligament or Bridle to keep down the Tendons & prevent their sliding up when the Muscles contract, as those of the Wrist; Lastly, there is the Peculiar Mucous, which was discovered by D. Douglass, it's Use is to prevent Friction, where a Tendon plays upon a bone, the end of the Tendon forms one part of the Bag, & the bone the other part; A large one may be seen under the Deltoid, where it plays upon the head of the Humerus.

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Lecture II

Having now considered the general structure of Muscles Anatomically, we proceed next to consider them Physiologically, to consider their action, that is, Muscular Motion as it is called. In the living body, the action of a shortening, or an endeavour to shorten itself, this is generally the state of a muscle in action, but sometimes it is lengthened if during the time of its action, it is resisted & pulled out, as a man having his arm by another, which he endeavours to prevent by the action of the Muscles of that part, the action of all Muscles depends upon their longitudinal fibres, that is those which are peculiar to them as Muscles, for whatever is void of transverse fibres, they are evidently, nothing but cellular Membrane connecting the longitudinal ones. The action of the Muscles as to the effect produced is very different in different Muscles, as between straight and hollow ones for instance. The effect also will differ according to the direction of the Muscle, thus the Trochlear Muscle of the Eye by means of the Pulley, draws the globe in a direction different from the line of contraction. The effect differs as the whole or part of a Muscle only happens to act, thus the whole of the Deltoid acting will raise the Arm directly upwards, if a portion of it only is in action, the Arm will be pulled more or less to one side or other, or upwards, or downwards as the portion happens to be more on one side, than another, or on the top. It has been a Question with some (and an idle one too) whether one part of a Muscle can be in action & contracted, and another part of it relaxed & passive at the same time. Nothing may be more plainly observed than this partial motion in the Deltoid, one part of it shall be contracted & hard, while another part shall be relaxed & soft, that the Radiated Muscles particularly act in one part & relax in another at the same time, is sufficiently evident too in the Pectoralis Major. The effect produced by Muscles in action will differ according to the state of the Joint they are to move; thus the Biceps Brachii when the hand is supine will bend the Arm, but when it is prone, the effect produced is different as

Thus happens

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then happens to be a co-operation or combination of the action of other muscles; thus if only one of the trapezoids be put in action, the head will be pulled down on the shoulder, but if both act at the same time, the head will be bent directly forwards; This co-operation or combination is greater in our bodies than ~~one~~^{one} would imagine especially in the extremities where a variety of motion is required in the same part, it is also infinite as makes our System of Muscular action very complicated & hard to be understood in a man that is performing the slightest action moves a great number of his muscles. Muscular motion, tho' it seems to be so very easy & natural to us to perform, yet is only acquired by attention & use. Children learn to use their muscles by degrees, & it has cost us great labour in learning how to perform many actions with our muscles, which now appears to be quite natural to us, when we consider the force of muscular action, we must make a distinction between their absolute & relative force. Force Absolute is what a muscle could exert independant of its origin & insertion; supposing a muscle alone was to have a weight on one end & fastned to any thing at the other; the force it could exert to raise the weight will be Absolute force. Force Relative is that with which a muscle really does act on our Machine according as it is placed in the body with regard to origin & insertion; & this generally is greatly inferior to Absolute force. The muscles are commonly inserted into the bones near their center of motion, which makes them act at a disadvantage for if a string be tied to that part of a stick near its center of motion, it will require a greater force to raise a weight placed at the end, than if a string be tied farther off the center of motion. (but this disadvantage is compensated for by very great Advantages: the muscles are strong enough to overcome this disadvantage, and the compact form of the body requires them to be placed as they are, besides their Velocity is greatly increased by it, as they only need move a little to produce their effect; thus the hand will move less in turning a wheel around, if it be placed near the center, than if it be placed near

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placed near the circumference & it is very evident that it is not elasticity which produces action in a muscle. Let us examine a few of the phenomena observable in the action of muscles: first, a muscle in action grows hard in its substance, & contracts in its length if the resistance does not equal, or overcome it; secondly, some muscles in action will shorten themselves two thirds of their length or more, this can be proved in the fibres of the Stomach, Intestines &c. The Urinary Bladder in People that are hanged will sometimes contract itself like a solid ball; thirdly, it is incontrovertible that the whole body of a muscle does not grow visibly bigger in action, that is if it increases in bulk, it decreases in length in the same proportion. Muscles during the time of their action were said to grow pale, but this opinion is now given up to observe this, Experiments were made on Vipers & other Animals when the Heart was observed at the time of its contraction to be come pale, but it was not that the Muscular flesh grew pale, but being then as the blood being pressed out of it by the contraction, I was on that account paler than when it was relaxed & full of blood. It was a common opinion that in living Animals the Muscles were always vibrating, that the cause of contraction constantly existed & as an instance the Sphincter Ani was said to be always contracted; if not overcome by some Cause, as the Faeces, &c. that the Flexors of the Arm in sleep are always endeavouring to bend, by the Extensors to unbend the Arm, thus by their opposite Actions keeping it in Equilibrium, but this Opinion is manifestly absurd. In the Voluntary Muscles motion depends entirely on the Will, that is to say, they do not contract with any sensible force, but only just enough to adapt themselves to the different positions of the Limbs. The Muscles have Nerves & are distributed to them, as many Experiments have been made to ascertain this influence on the Muscles: every body allows that when a Nerve is cut that, or tied tight all motion ceases in the part to which it is distributed. The same thing happens when the Brain is injured, & those parts which derive
their Nerves

their Nerves from that part of the Brain, which has received the Injury, & Imitations of the Nerves will produce irregular Motions of the Muscles or Convulsions. If we cut off the head of a Frog, & run a pin down the Spinal Marrow, the whole body will be convulsed; & if we prick the Spinal Marrow as it comes out from the Skull, the Muscles of the head will be convulsed also. To ascertain what share the Blood has in producing Muscular Motion Experiments have been made by tying the Cerebral Artery, but this experiment proves nothing for there are a great many Anas-tomosing & lateral branches. Paralytic Cases seem to prove that the arterial blood has very little influence on Muscular Motion; on the other hand, when the Muscles have been long undrained, the Muscular fibres shrink their colour becomes whiter, & they lose in a great measure their Muscular Appearance. We say, that a Muscle is active when it contracts, passive when it relaxes, and further the Heart is active in the Systole & passive in the Diastole, but it appears that the Heart is active in the Systole & Diastole too, for if a Ring of the Substance of a Turtle's heart be cut out, the fibres will not only shorten themselves so as to contract the circle, but they will likewise lengthen themselves so as to enlarge the circle & this alternately. Numerous Theories have been invented to account for Muscular Motion; Some have supposed that the Action of Muscles was caused by a flowing of Spirits into them from the Heart; others that the Muscular fibres were a chain of Vesicles, & when in action were filled with animal Spirits; others that the Vesicles of which the Muscular fibre was supposed to be composed were filled with arterial blood, while the Nerves were supposed to act as Minister Muscles to prevent its entering them, when in an inactive state. Others have supposed that Muscular Motion was caused by an Effluence between the blood & animal Spirits. As we are entirely ignorant of the Structure of a Muscular Fibre, it is impossible we should know what changes are produced in it by the Action of a Muscle, and it is highly probable

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probable that Muscular Motion will never be explained. A question has often been started, namely, whether on this or that part of the body, the Uterus for instance, there are any muscular fibres. Those who propose such a question, go on the supposition, that the Structure of all Muscles is the same, which may probably not be the case; for we may observe a great difference in different Muscles, some are Voluntary & subject to the will; these soon grow tired with acting; Some are involuntary & these never tire, tho' their Action sometimes last upwards of an hundred years; Others are both Voluntary & Involuntary, for instance the Muscles of Respiration, whose action, we can either accelerate and retard at pleasure, tho' commonly they act without the interposition of the will. Of late years Haller's Doctrine of the Invariability of Muscles has made a great noise, but when he says no parts of the body are inevitable, but the Muscles, it is plain that he only means, that no parts of the body contract from a Stimulus being applied to them, but the Muscles; this appearing to be a property peculiar to the Muscular fibres, but great pain may be produced by stimulating parts which every one allows not to be Muscular.

N.B. The most certain sign of Death next to putrefaction is when all the Muscles of the body become stiff & rigid.

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The Bones

Lecture 12

The Bones differ from all parts of the body, in hardness & inflexibility, every part of the body has some flexibility, but the bones. In this external view they are very compact, their internal part is spongy or cellular. The compact part does not appear porous to the eye, but by the help of a glass, or if we examine bones that have been long exposed to the weather (whereby every thing in it that was not bone is destroyed) we shall find that they are full of cavities - these cavities are principally filled with blood vessels, which proves the bones to be vascular & to have a circulation thro' them. Thousands of Vessels run branching inwards into the bones & as famous, with the branches of Arteries went to the marrow, which branch outwards to meet them. Most Authors agree that the bones have no feeling, it is impossible to determine absolutely whether they have Nerves, or not, as we cannot colour Nerves, nor trace them to any degree of minuteness; the Nerves may be traced running into bones, but this not known whether they terminate in the marrow, or in the compact part of the bone, if they do they are probably so loaded with earthy matter as to be insensible. It has been said, that the compact Substance, is composed of laminae, like plates of wood laid on each other, & that to prevent these plates or fibres from becoming brittle, Nature has furnished the marrow or oil, and transverse & longitudinal Canals running thro' the bones to distribute it to every part, and as a proof of the existence of these Medullary Canals they mention the transudation of Oil thro' the bones after they have been cleaned. Morgagni says, that the Medullary Canals are largest on the internal surface of the bones, becoming smaller as they run into the compact substance, & become smaller & smaller as they run inwards this fact falls to the ground. He Lichwitz says that the Canals for the blood Vessels are round, & that those for the marrow are oval, or flattish; but if we break a bone thro' where an Artery sends off a branch, the hole,

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the hole will appear oblong, then does not appear to be any such Medullary Canals. If we take the bone of an animal just killed, & wipe & dry it, it will become white, that is, it will have no oil on its surface, but let it be kept some time and the oil will gradually transude, so that the marrow does not transude the substance of a bone till after death, the same thing happens to the blood in the vessels; now if the oil was always in the compact substance of a bone, the appearance of it would be the same in a living or a dead body, but this is by no means the case, therefore we must look upon marrow in another light than given to preserve moisture & softness in bones. The Bones appear white & opaque in proportion as they contain less oil: It has been an opinion with many that the bones of People become brittle from a deficiency of this oil or marrow, but the bones of old People in general, contain as much marrow as when they were younger; as their brittleness proceeds from a quantity of the bony matter being carried off in old age, as we shall have occasion to prove further on. A Discovery of Mr John Hunter's proves that the use of the marrow is not to prevent the bones from becoming brittle. For he finds that some Animals have hollow bones without marrow, & that the Air of Respiration passes into them from the Lungs, particularly the Os Humeri & Humeri of some birds, yet their bones are not more brittle than those which contain marrow. There is an Error running thro' all Physiology at this time, namely, that of explaining all parts of the body upon Mechanical principles, principles very different from those which exist in many parts of the Animal Machine: & therefore it has been said in explaining this matter, that a bit of hard / that is dry / wood is easily broken, but if it is soaked in oil it is rendered tougher. We come now to consider the Cellular part of the bones; all bones have more or less of the compact substance, & more or less of the Spongy, or Cellular, which last is always placed on the inside of a bone.

author

The Bones

Authors have descended to a great degree of minuteness the different kinds of cells in bones, but no farther knowledge of them is necessary, than to know that they form a regular kind of medium; all the cells communicating with each other. Its structure is very different in different parts of the same bone. It has been a question whether in some bones there is not one large cavity without any cancelli? generally there are some cells but the bony substance is the same in every part: all the Cavities are filled with Marrow. The Marrow should be considered as similar in every Respect with the Oil in the Adipose Membrane, as that is different in consistence in different Animals so is Marrow also. The Os has a very firm Marrow when cold, the fat in the Adipose Membrane is firm also, In the Flog of Human body it is soft & greasy, their Adipose being so too. From not attending to this, some have said that the Marrow in the middle of a bone is hard, & that in the Spongy Cells at the ends it is softer & more bloody, & the one called Succus Medullaris; But as far as we can judge, the Marrow is the same in all parts of the body: its being bloody depends only on the blood contained in the very fine Vessels dispersed thro' it: when examined by the Microscope we see in it little small Masses, these are little bags full of Oil; the Marrow like the Cellular Membrane is very vascular, fine Membranes run thro' the whole of it, as the Vessels upon the sc. and in some way there is a Membrane surrounding the whole Marrow, lying between it & the bone, called the Membrane of the Marrow or internal Periosteum: but this cannot be demonstrated in the Human body, because of the roughness of the inner Surface of Bones; In Quadrupeds it is certainly, & may be distinctly seen in the Bone of a Fox; thousands of Vessels are to be seen in the Marrow, so that when they are injured it is uniformly red. Two Uses have been ascribed to the Marrow the first, we have already mentioned, namely, that it served to unite the bones & prevent their breaking, and the second was, that it soaked thro' into the Cavities of the joints to lubricate them & facilitate their motions; but it does not

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does not appear to view any particular purpose; The Bones were supposed to be made hollow for the Reception of the Marrow, but the real reason of their having this form, was certainly to save the expense of bony Matter, for, being made hollow they are much stronger than if they had been solid & less in Diameter, so as to have had the same quantity of bony Matter in them. The Bony Substance appears to be of such a nature as not easily to be produced in the body, for some Bones are not perfect till 20, or 25 years of age; we see then that for these reasons there is a cavity left in a bone; now what shall this cavity be filled up with? why, Oil is wanted in the condensation, therefore it may as well be filled up with Oil, as left empty & useless; so that the marrow is the same in all respects, as the Fat in the Adipose Membrane, when from any cause the Substance of the Fat is wasted in the Adipose Membrane, there is very little Marrow in the bones & vice versa. In an old Decease, the Oil in the Adipose Membrane is lost, & its place supplied with water, so also is the marrow changed, instead of it there remains in the bone a watery fluid; so that the marrow & Adipose always keep pace with each other. Thus far the Structure of Bones in general; we shall next speak of the covering of the Bones, the Periosteum. The outer Surface of a Bone is covered always (except where it is covered with Epistle, Tendons, or Ligaments, or in the Teeth where it is exposed) with a Membrane uniting firmly to it called Periosteum, and from the outer surfaces of it goes the Cellular Membrane to unite to the surrounding parts. And to wit, that it is a double Membrane made up of two laminated Strata. The first Stratum or outer layer, they say, (or rightly enough) consists of Tendinous & Ligamentous fibres inserted on the bone, & therefore it is thicker in those places where there are few Tendons & Ligaments; that this is the manner in which the Periosteum is produced, is without a doubt, & that it is thicker in some parts than in others. The fibres of this outer Stratum are very strong, & differently disposed; besides this outer, they say there is an inner Stratum made of finer fibres running in the direction of the bone & there appears

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appears not to be the least occasion for this distinction, it seems to be one sort of a Membrane only, with fibres running thro' it, thro', & though it is possible to divide it into many, that a, yet it is all one of the same Membrane. The Periosteum is more vascular than the Tendons & Ligaments, because besides those Capells, which it has from the Tendons & Ligaments, there are others entering it which go to & come from the bone. It has been much disputed of late, whether the Periosteum has any Nerves or not; Haller says, it is insensible; D. Haller says, he can trace Nerves passing thro' it, but cannot say, whether it has any spread on its substance or not, he thinks it insensible. Various are the Uses which have been ascribed to the Periosteum & from its supposed exquisite sensibility. Some thought that it served as a guard to the bone, to warn us of the approach of mischief. Others supposed that it served to set bounds to the growth of bones, which would otherwise increase irregularly, but bones certainly take their form from some other cause. Others supposed that it served to accelerate the blood; but even this the bone, for they said that the blood being thrown into an artery, would distend that of the Periosteum, that there the Periosteum would contract & force upon the blood thro' that Bone, but they did not consider that as much force would be lost in distending the Membrane, as would be gained by its reaction. Others supposed it served to unite the Epiphyse to the bone, but this appears to be an accidental one. DuRoi thought that it served to make bone & Callus. But his Arguments are not well supported. its Use seems to be nothing more than by embracing the whole bones to afford a safer & faster insertion to Tendons & Ligaments and to protect the Blood Capells from being ruptured, which enter the bone from those Muscles that are connected to them by their fleshy fibres only. We come now to consider the diseases of the bones; In the first place they may become soft & pliable in consequence of the bony matter being absorbed from them, and in some cases their texture appears to be entirely changed.

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changed: In old age a considerable quantity of the bony substance is absorbed and carried away, the marrow being a vascular part is liable to diseases, tho' it is well defended by its bony case, yet sometimes an Abscess is formed in the inside of a bone attended with great pain, & makes terrible havoc before it appears outwardly. The Periosteum is now well known to be a very insensible part in its sound state, yet diseases of the Periosteum are very troublesome & tedious, by reason of its connection with the bone, when the Periosteum is much diseased the bone is soon affected. It has been long Observed that most poisons commonly attack the Periosteum or the bones of the extremities, the Skin, the Throat, & the bones themselves, Nodes, which were long supposed to be an affection of the bones are now known to be a disease of the Periosteum: the Venereal poison inflames, thickens & swells the Periosteum, and a viscid fluid is lodged under it, which if not timely relieved will at last affect the bones themselves; but in the beginning, it is always a disease of the Periosteum only: Prudent Surgeons in such cases don't chuse to trust a salivation alone for the cure of the Venereal disease, and leave these untouched, for it has happened that the Virus has been detained in them after a Mercurial Course has been finished, so that they usually open them with a Caustic Fluid, but it is better to make a simple incision down to the bone, than expose them to Caustics: tho' they will often softer and disappear during a Mercurial Course, yet it has been found that when opening of them has been neglected, that it has been sometimes necessary to do it at last to get rid of the poison entirely. The Effect of the Venereal poison is evidently increased by Cold. The Nodes are always found on those bones which lay near the surface of the body. They first appear on the Shins, and not till after a great length of time on the Shoulder. A Node on the Thigh bone was once heard of.

It is

The Bones

It is from the Throat being so much exposed to cold, that the disease so often makes its appearance there; if then cold makes the Venereal Poison worse, we might conclude, that the disease is more insatiable in cold climates than in warm ones. Some say that this is actually the case, that in Portugal, it is so mild, that the diseased hardly ever apply for relief, and it is also said to be very mild in the West Indies: on the other hand some affirm just the contrary, & say the disease is well known to be particularly violent in the East Indies; however that be, Mercury is the Specific in that case; and the reason why we do not get cured here so soon as in the hotter climates is, because we cannot take such a quantity of Mercury, as is requisite, without bringing on violent symptoms, such as Diarrhoea, Saliva &c from the coldness of the climate.

The General Doctrine of Bones

Lecture. 13th

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Whitaker on Anatomy have described the inequalities on the external Surface of bones every minutely & indeed to very little purpose, thus some kind of Processes were called Capite, Others Condyles &c these will be taken notice of, when we describe particular bones. The Cavities on the external surface have just as absurdly been described, Some of them are said to be Cavities for Articulation, others for containing soft parts as The Socket of the Eye, &c. The Colour of the Human bones being similar to that of the bones of Quadrupeds, is therefore well known. The bones of young Children are of a more purple colour than those of Adults, because their Vessels are more numerous in proportion to the bony Matter. A very useful discovery was some time ago made by Mr Bechier namely, that animals which have fed on Mad-dog for some time have their bones coloured with it, & what is very remarkable the Mad-dog produces no such Effect on any other part of the body. Mr John Hunter has made a number of experiments with Mad-dog, he finds that the bones of an old Animal fed with Mad-dog will hardly be tinged with it, but that the bones of a young Animal will be considerably tinged with it in a short time. This is an exceeding useful Discovery, as it teaches us, in some measure, how the bones grow, for from Mr John Hunter's experiment it appears to be only that part of the bone, which is formed during the time of feeding on Mad-dog, which takes this tinge. Some kind of Fowls are said to have black bones, but this is a mistake, their bones are of the same colour as the bones of other Fowls, but covered with a black Periosteum; here is a Proof, it may be said, that the Periosteum is not composed of Tendons, or of Ligaments, because they are not black, but we may suppose that there are Vessels in the Periosteum, which deposit, or secrete this black colouring, & not in the Tendons & Ligaments; but Mr J^r Hunter says —

The General Doctrine of Bones

says that the Tendons & Ligaments are coloured with it also. The Bones by a Chemical Analysis appear to differ from the other parts of the body only by having a larger quantity of animal Earth in their Substances; it is not calcareous, but a pure Absorbent Earth, which will stand any degree of heat without Vitrifying, called therefore Repartory. This Earth constitutes so large a part of the bones as to preserve their form after all their other principles are destroyed by time. When Vessels or Leadon Coffins have been opened, in which bones have laid for ages, they have retained their form, but crumbled to Dust on the slightest touch. An Oil which is one of the principal parts of bones adheres very strongly to this Earthy Matter, and cannot be driven out without a very violent fire, it is this Oil united to the Earth, which makes what is called Ivory Black. Anatomists are unwilling to change the old terms for the Articulations of the joints, tho they cannot properly express their meaning by them. Galen speaking of the Articulations of the joints, says there are two principal kinds; first those for motion, which he calls Diarthrosis, and secondly, the Articulation without motion, or Synarthrosis, and these he subdivides into several other classes, vide Philo's Anatomy, or Motus's Osteology. This method is a very lame one, indeed such is the nature of the joints, that they cannot be well divided into different classes, for the classes run so with one another that we cannot draw the line between them. In joints there are two advantages to be considered: One that they admit of a great deal of motion; the other that they are strong. We can hardly have a joint strong & yet admit of a great deal of motion, for the form of a joint intended for strength necessarily confines motion. The same observation will hold good in regard to the Ligaments, the stronger & the thicker the Capsular Ligament is, the stronger the joint will be, but then the more motion will be restrained by it, & this doctrine will be found to explain many Phenomena of the joints.

There are

The Diseases of the Joints

There are two diseases to which the joints are ^{very} liable, the first is Dislocation or Luxation, which has been divided into Luxation complete, & Subluxation; in the first instance the head of the bone is entirely removed out of its place; in the second it is only partially dislocated, so the edge of the bone rests upon the edge of its Socket. The Ball and Socket Joint cannot have a permanent Subluxation, as the ^{action} motion of the Limb would determine the head to go into, or on the outside of the Socket. In the Ginglymi it may be permanent, but as a Luxation here can be made only in two directions, so a Subluxation can only be sideways, which we shall plainly see. Must be the case in the joint between the Humerus & Ulna.

The second disease to which joints are liable, is called Ankylosis, by which is now generally understood a Stiff Joint. There are two kinds of it, one in which the joint is quite rigid & immovable, commonly with a firm Union between the two bones, & is always incurable; the other called incomplete is when there is not a total immobility but a little Motion remains; this when it depends upon a disease of the fleshy substance surrounding the joint may oftentimes be cured, but when the bones are affected, it is irremediable.

The Cartilages

We shall next speak of a Substance, which has not yet been mentioned, viz. a Gristle or Cartilage, which always covers the ends of those bones, that are designed for Motion. It is a very white elastic compact Substance, & may be known from every other part of the body by cutting it, for I never cut a compound of Strands or fibres, but like a piece of Wax or Cheese in which it differs from the Tendons & Ligaments in, Authors frequently talk of a Cartilaginous Ligament & Ligamentous Cartilage, a distinction without a difference. Some Authors have defined a Gristle to be a soft bone, & say that all bones were once Gristles, but bones are of a quite different nature.

The Cartilages

Nature. The Cartilages may properly be divided into three different classes, first, those which we find in young animals to supply the place of bone till it can be formed; secondly, those which are to remain Cartilages during Life, & which are not situated in the joints, such as those of the Ear, Nose, Larynx, &c. Thirdly, the Articular Cartilages covering the surface of bones in the Joints. The Cartilages of the first & second Class are covered with a Membrane, composed of Condinous & Ligamentous Fibres, entirely similar to the Pericottum, & is called Perichondrium; it may be distinctly seen on the Thigh bone of a Child, & on the Cartilages of the ribs, but there is not the least appearance of it on any of the Articular Cartilages. In texture a Cartilage seems to be similar to the white of an Egg fixed by boiling, & like that too it has not the least fibrous appearance, but if we saw the head of a bone half thro', and then break it, we shall see it made up of a number of fibres running perpendicular to the bones, to each other; these must undoubtedly be transverse fibres also to connect the others together, but they are so small as not to be discernible. The Cartilage of the first Class has a few Vessels that carry red blood, but the Articular Cartilages have none at all, what Vessels they have must be all of the venous kind. We can inject the Cartilage of a growing bone, but the red matter will stop when it comes to Articular Cartilage abruptly, & form around it a Vascular border. The Cartilages are supposed to be entirely destitute of Nerves, & of course insensible. The Use of the Cartilages is different in different parts of the body. The Use of the first Class is to supply the place of bone for a short time in young animals, as has been already mentioned. Those of the second Class are used where bone would not have been so convenient, as in the Nose, Ear, & several other parts, where bones would have been often liable to be broken; the Cartilages of the third Class serve to prevent friction between the ends of the bones, & from their elastic quality, when strongly pressed on, they are in very close contact with the ends of the bones, & thus make the joint stronger in proportion to the weight pressing upon it, & from their being elastic they may probably prevent jarring.

harring of the joints in violent Pumping, &c. by giving way, or by that means breaking the force of the blow. The Cartilages are the least liable to disease of any part of the body, & are seldom found changed in their texture; they also seem to bear pain better than any other part, for in Anemisms it sometimes happens, that the Ribs on their bony parts are very quite destroy'd by the pressure of the Anemism, while the Cartilages uniting them to the Sternum are sound, & only bent outwards. It has been a Question, whether a Cartilage will granulate flesh or not; Dr Hunter in one Case, which he had an opportunity of examining, found that it did not, but he believes that after some time they will always unite.

The Ligaments

We are next to examine the Ligaments. A Ligament is a Substance that binds one bone to another of the joints, it is easily distinguished from a Ligistle by its inelastic quality, & fibrous texture. A Ligament is evidently the same kind of Substance as a Tendon: At the place the Tendon may be seen detaching threads down to the Patella, for its Periostracum, as passing down the fore part of the Tibia, it becomes the Ligament uniting that with the Patella, plainly therefore a continuation of the Tendon. Ligaments have been distinguished into various kinds, as the disposition of their fibres varies. Let us first consider particularly what is called a Capsular or Bursal Ligament as it relates to the joints. A Capsular Ligament envelopes a joint like a bag, when it is entire; it may be properly considered as composed of two Laminae, or Strata. The outermost runs down upon the Periosteum, & is very thick; the inner and what involves the joint, where the cavity of the joint ends, seems to turn & cover the Cartilage of the articulation. In a young Animal, we can sometimes pull off a fine Membrane from the articular Cartilages evidently reflected from the inner Stratum of the Capsular Ligament, so that this Stratum is reflected over the Cartilages & goes on to the Ligament again without end, making a complete bag for containing Synovia. The Tenuity, or Length of the Capsular Ligament is in proportion to the

largeness

largeness of motion in a joint, so as just to allow of necessary motion
 Dr Hunter says, he has been often puzzled to account for the crackling of
 the fingers, when they are pulled, & he thinks it may be by the two Sur-
 faces having first made, a Vacuum by their Attraction, & then, when the
 Vacuum is taken away by separating the bones, the crackling is produced
 for after they have once cracked, if tried they don't crack again unless the
 bones be moved one against the other for some little time first. or Con-
 sidering some joints the Capsular Ligament is not inserted far from the Surface
 of the articulation, but in those which admit of a great variety of motion,
 it is inserted far on the bones. It is observable in the cutting off a joint
 that we do it more easily if the bone be thrust as far on one side as
 possible, for by this means there is a greater part of the Ligament actu-
 ally forming the joint put on the S. but ch, & therefore we can cut the
 joint with more certainty. Besides the Capsular Ligament there is an
 other within the joint to connect the bones together, and it restrains mo-
 tion, & prevents dislocation, but of this more hereafter. The Capsular
 Ligament confines the Synovia in the joint, this is principally the
 use of the inner stratum of fibres which involve the joint all round; it
 also serves to prevent the fleshy parts from being pushed between
 the ends of the bones and pinched. But then what prevents itself
 from being pushed into the joint on the lower side? It is prevented by
 the Tendon of the Muscles in action, which being fixed to the Ligament
 draws it out of the way at the time the joint moves, but it is some-
 times forced between the bones by external Violence

The Ligaments

Lecture. 14th

Besides the Capsular Ligament before examined, a joint has connecting or lateral Ligaments. The Capsular Ligament is of the same strength & thickness all around. In the Ginglymi joints to bind the bones together more firmly there is a Ligament placed on the sides, where the ends of the bones do not recede much from each other, in Flexion and Extension as on the sides of the Elbow joints. In the three joints there are Ligaments arising from the middle of the bones, where there is a deep notch in their hinder part, which being on the stretch in Extension set bounds to the Motion, & prevent the Legs from going farther than to form a straight line with the Thigh for there is nothing in the Form of the Os Femoris, Tibia, Fibula, or Patella to stop Extension. Ligaments & Tendons have no Elastic property, for if they had they would recede from each other, and as Tendons being inelastic Substances are often ruptured, so are the Ligaments from violent exertion, as Leaping, Dancing &c. Indeed there is one which has the property of being Elastic, the Ligamentous Substance between all the Vertebrae, which we shall take particular notice of hereafter. Till within these few years Tendons & Ligaments were supposed to be insensitively sensible, I remember saying, that from observing that the Ligaments, Tendons, Dura Mater, & Peritoneum appeared to be indurably similar in texture, he was induced to believe, that they were all equally, pervious, or insensible, that from observing an incision of the Dura Mater gave no pain, that the Peritoneum when scraped in Amputation gave no pain, that the Tendons of Man's hand which have laid bare by an Ronger gave no pain when pressed on, & from several other observations of the same kind, he first began to doubt of their Insensibility. A Gentleman, whose Tendo Achillis was almost ruptured through by different parcels of its fibres giving way at different times, informed him that at the time he felt no pain, only a sensation as if something had given way in his Thigh. From many observations, which he has since made, he is

thoroughly

The Ligaments

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thoroughly convinced of their insensibility, or at least that they enjoy Sensibility in a very low degree. Bleeding in the arm is sometimes attended with great pain and very alarming symptoms; This was accounted for by saying that the Tendon was wounded in the Operation, that the great pain caused by a partial division of the Tendon arose from the remaining fibres that were entire having this extreme sensibility increased by being put on the stretch, and therefore they advised dividing the Tendon entirely, to take off their distention. But Dr Hunter says all those alarming symptoms are generally the consequence of the vessel being punctured and not the Tendon. Haller by many experiments has proved the insensibility of those parts, but he attributed too much to insensibility, thinking that Wounds of these parts would heal as soon as & as gently as others. But this is contradicted by daily experience, for most terrible consequences often ensue from wounding them, and sometimes Death. A number of parts about a joint appear to be exceedingly sensible, at least we imagine so from the great pain in Cases of Rheumatism. It seems probable therefore, that they have a very small degree of Sensibility, which is exceedingly increased by inflammation, or otherwise; that parts may have an increased sensibility, when naturally they have but little, is evident; for when the hand is warm, if we rap our knuckles against any thing gently, it will produce no uneasiness; but when the hand is very cold, if we then rap them with the same force, it will be very painful. The Reason, why inflammation of the joint is so very painful, is probably, owing to the Part about a joint being so much confined by their situation, & situation that they can distend or swell themselves but very little. This is also the Reason why a Dislocation of the finger is more troublesome to a Patient, than a inflammation on the arm, the Skin in the latter allowing more room for Distension than the former.

Location. We come,

Lucations

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We come next to speak of Lucations - It was the general doctrine that when a bone was luced, that the Capsular Ligament stretched, & relaxed, before the head of the bone, but upon examining the Capsular Ligament in a dead Subject, one would conclude a priori, that it is too strong & tight to admit of a Lucation from external force without being ruptured. D Hunter says, he believes that the Capsular Ligament is always torn, for he has several Times attempted to luate the Humerus, Femur in a dead Subject, but never could effect it without tearing thro' the Capsular Ligament. These Trials he thinks are conclusive, because Mechanical force acts exactly the same, on the Dead as on the living Subject. He says the Phenomena of Lucations prove this Theory; sometimes a Dislocated bone is reduced with great ease, at other times not without great difficulty. This difference was accounted for by supposing that in the first case, the muscles made little or no resistance to the Reduction, but that in the second, they contracted strongly, so as to require great force to overcome their action: It is clear however, that the muscles do not contract so much as to counteract us in making Reductions; when the Patient gives himself up entirely to our Reduction. The difficulty then consists of reducing a Lucated Bone in the smallness of the rupture of the Capsular Ligament as the direction in which it is ruptured so that sometimes by making a strong Reduction we shall be so far from reducing the Lucation, as even to render it impossible to be performed in that manner. After having used all manner of Reduction and means of Reduction to no purpose, it sometimes happens that the bone goes into its place voluntarily, as it were. D Hunter says, that the torn Ligament embraces the head of the bone as a Buttonhole does a Button, and prevents its return into the joint, and that by turning the Limb to and fro, there is a much better chance of reducing the Lucation.

Luxations, & the Synovia

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Luxation by wriggling the bone through again, than by making strong & convulsed, which often tightens the structure, and increases the difficulty. It may sometimes happen that a disease of the joint may so relax the Capsular Ligament as to allow of Luxation without being torn, but when the Luxation happens from external force, Dr Hunter believes that the Ligament is always torn. The reason why Laceration of the Capsular Ligament does not occasion great mischief as a wound penetrating the joint does, is because no vit is admitted to it. There is found in the cavity of all joints that have motion, a serpy fluid, by far the most lubricating of any known called Synovia, supposed to be secreted by glands called Mucous glands situated in the joints. It was further said, that the number & size of these glands were adapted to the different motions of the joints, & that their secretion was promoted by pressure. The ducts of these substances are not glands but that, we know the fact by the taste of it in boiled meat, which is very different from that of a gland, & in Diapysical Subjects these substances are found to be only cellular membrane, filled with water. It appears then that the joints of the joints are, filled with Fat, by the same laws of the Animal Economy, as the cellular membrane & Bones are, beides in the cavity of the Shoulder joint which admits of large motion & of course requires, and has, a great quantity of Synovia; we do not find the least appearance of this substance, because the joint is every where regular & without any cavity to contain it, which plainly proves that this supposed glandular body, does not furnish the Synovia. From the inner surface of the Capsular Ligament being extremely vascular, it is reasonable to suppose that this membrane is the secondary Organ. It has been said, that the Synovia was a compound of water & oil transuded from the bone thro' the Cartilage, but as it is evident, there is no transudation in the living body, this cannot be the way in

The Synovia &c.

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way in which the Synovia is made, it is most probably, occluded by the
Bursal Ligament, however that be, it is occluding well adapted to the purpose.
: one, & in many cases it would be much better to dip the finger, or a wax
: candle in Synovia rather than in oil, when they are to be introduced into
parts that are very irritable. Persons of Prophetic habits are most
subject to diseases of the joints. In that disease of a joint called a White
: Swelling, there is always a redundancy of Synovia, which when let out
appears to be mixed with matter. In that way, there is sometimes a defic-
: iency of Synovia as when a joint crackles, also it may be too thin, or too
thick, these opinions appear reasonable, but we must remember it is
only Theory. Some have accounted for a limb becoming stiff, or its
remaining motionless for some time, as in a Fracture, by supposing that
the Synovia has a tendency to coagulate on Stagnation, & that it was kept
in a fluid state by the frequent motion of the joint. It has also been
: said, that when a Bone has been diseased for some time, the Cavity of the
Joint is filled up with coagulated Synovia, which makes the reduction impos-
sible. Dr Hunter says, he is very clear that Concretions of the Synovia
never happen, & that the reason why a bone, which has been long diseased
cannot be reduced, is, because the surrounding flesh has been united
with the head of the bone. Chalky Concretions are very troublesome in
the joints of old People. In one Case Dr Hunter found the Synovia
white like Cream occasioned by a Chalk Stone having been rubbed down
by the motion of the joint into a Powder, some of which being too gross to
remain suspended in the Synovia had fallen down to the most depending
part of the joint, & in this case the Cartilages are eroded.

Let us next consider the Bones as to their Number & Class. The
number of the Bones differs in different People, in different Ages. In
a young Animal there are more than in an old one, for instance, the
Femur, which in the Adult is but one Bone, is made of four in a
Child.

The Number & Classes of Bones

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Children the bones like the joint cannot well be divided into distinct classes, because in fact they all differ one from another, & Classification is at best, but an idle thing. If we do class them, we shall for the sake of referring to a Set of Bones divide them into four kinds with regard to Structure. First, the cylindrical, or those which are nearly so, with their Apophyses, & Epiphyses made large at the ends to allow a greater Surface for articulation & the insertion of Muscles. The middle of these bones are the smallest part of them, but they contain a much greater quantity of bony matter, which adds considerably to their strength in that part. The Second, the Spherical such as the Patella. Bones of the Carpus & Tarsus on the outside hard like a Shell, and spongy within. The Third, flat as the Ilium & Bones of the Skull with hard compact Plates on each side, & a spongy texture between them called Diploe & Medulla. The fourth, the irregular bones, those which partake the properties of the other three, such as the Vertebrae, the Bones of the Face, & others. In the latter we find that the Muscles, Tendons, & all the fleshy parts appear distinct, tho' exceeding small, & of very tender texture, therefore we shall not enquire how they are formed, but with the bones it is very different, & therefore it shall be the subject of our subsequent lecture to treat of them.

The Formation of Bones

Lecture 15th

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We are now come to the last part of the general Lectures, that is, to the
: 94 or the Formation of Bones. We shall begin with the Clap of Skull
Bones, & particularly the bones of the Skull, not however those that
form the Basis of the Skull, the first appearance of Ossification in
these Bones is in the Center, and work of fine bony threads, is formed
the strongest of which are disposed in a radiated manner from Center to Circum-
ference, and bound together by transverse fibres of bones, these increase daily
while Ossification is going on, the part is receiving vascular the vessels fill-
ing up the interstices of the fibres & of course following their direction.
In these it is plain, Bones are originally made up of Fibres, the Fibres
compose Plates, and the Plates added to one another form the strength
thickness of the bone, the plates lying over one another like the Scales of
an Oyster, the lower one projecting beyond that which is above it. There is
a question with regard to the Theory of Ossification, it is this, whether or not
there is a Cartilage all round the little bony fibres while they are growing?
That is, whether the bones are previously in a Cartilaginous State? Albinus
thinks there is, tho' saving this able to be overlooked. There seems however
to be nothing like a Cartilage, for the bones of the Skull appear too short
on a Membrane, as Dr. Keil thinks, with regard to the Periosteum of
the Bones of the Skull, they seem to have it independent of Ligament
or Ligament, it is laid in layers like a gradual compress, and seems
to be formed from the bone itself, for by examining it we find, as the
plates of Bones are formed, they destroy the inner Lamina of the Peri-
osteum, and the Lamina are even continued at the edge of the growing
Plates. When these bones are first formed, and then, there is no
Medullum

The Formation of Bones

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Medullum, but as they increase & grow thicker the Medullum appears, the process by which this is brought about we are not acquainted with. The next to be considered are the Cylindrical Bones. These Bones appear to be previously brittle covered with a Periosteum very loosely connected with it; this can only be seen in the incubated Egg, which was very particularly examined by Haller in all its states. He says, the Gristle is covered by a Periosteum, call'd in this part Perichondrium, and that it is not attached to the Gristle; in this he appears to be mistaken, for the Periosteum is adherent to the Gristle: this we are convinced of by being able to trace the Vessels passing from one to the other. The first appearance of Bone is in the Middle, first, a Cloud appears in the Substance of the Gristle, which increases, and hardens daily into bone. At this Cloud the bony particles may be felt with the point of a fine Needle: this Ossification shoots farther & farther from the Middle, till both ends are formed. This first appearance of Ossification is only to be seen early in the Fetus, in the Thigh bone & Tibia. All the Cylindrical bones appear to be formed in this manner. The Periosteum of these Bones may be divided into Laminae, & appears to be entirely similar to that in the Flat Bones. It has been the common opinion, that Ossification in these Bones is first formed of fibres & plates, in the bones of the Skull, but we can never see any appearance of fibres, the bony particles shooting into a very irregular spongy body not detached but close. As the Bone shoots from the Middle towards the Extremities, the cartilage becomes shorter & shorter, and while this is going on a new Ossification begins at the very Center of the Gristle at the Ends, & makes the Epiphyses: the Ossification is perfected in the very Center of the Gristle first, & becomes larger & larger shooting quinquaversum: the body of the Bone & Epiphyses have but a thin Gristle between them, so that in boiling they separate, but as the Bones grow in

The Formation of Bones

grow in the Adult this Gristle is obliterated, & the two Ossifications remain united very firmly; one would think from its hardness that a Bone would not alter its figure, but it does both in length & thickness. Now the Question is, as the body increases in bulk, are the fibres of a bone lengthened out, or is there is a new addition or continuation of bony matter joined to them? It seems to be by an addition to the end of each fibre, & by its stretching too, like the shoot of a Tree. Des Haenel says that like the shoot of a Tree they grow best in the middle, & most at the ends, but Mr John Hunter says, they lengthen as much in the middle as at the ends. Then it may be asked, how do the bones increase in thickness? This appears to be produced by the fibres having some ductility & elasticity. The reason of Epiphyseis being formed distinct from the body of the Bone has not yet been explained. Various are the uses they have been supposed to serve: some have thought that their use was to confine the growth of the bones within proper bounds; but we may then ask, what sets bounds to their growth besides, for it is only some bones which have them: another opinion (foolish enough) was that Capsular Ligament by running between the body of the Bones, Epiphyseis might be more firmly united; it is sufficient to say that it does not go in between them, but runs on the surface down the bones. Another supposed use was that they made a kind of joint to facilitate the birth of the Child, & prevent the bones from being fractured: but the ends of the bones at Birth are, indeed, & capable of being bent considerably. Albinus's Doctrine appears most plausible, he says that in the long projected cylindrical bones, Nature sets up two Ossifications to perfect the bone sooner, & because the ends are to be larger & protecting that the new Ossification will form them so much better than the first, but for ought we know to the contrary, the first Ossification would have done just

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done just as well, their use has never yet been clearly made out; Birds have no epiphyses, the bones of their wings are hollow, but contain no marrow and Dr John Hunter has discovered that they have a Communication with the Lungs in Respiration, for Air blown into them will inflate the Lungs - Ossification begins in the Center of the Spheroidal Bones, they are at first nothing but Cartilage, & as the Ossification advances, they appear to be receding Lances: Note! It is very observable that in those bones a branching Artery first begins to ossify in the middle of the Gristly Subst^{ance}, putting on the appearance of a branch of a forest. The Ossification of the irregular bones puts on different appearances in several parts of the same bone; The whole is at first Cartilage having Ossification beginning in several parts, as in the Os femoris: indeed there are distinct Ossifications forming the Ilium Ischium & Pubis, and in the Vertebra there are four points of Ossification surrounding the Canal for the Spinal Marrow, one on the fore part, one on the back part on the Spinal Process, & one on each transverse Process. In bones of considerable extent having several points of Ossification we see great Variety in their number, as the Breast Bone for instance is sometimes composed of four, sometimes of five, & sometimes of six distinct bones; Ossifications proceed differently in different Constitutions & in different bones, Some bones are always completely ossified at birth, for instance the ribs and little bones of the ear; others remain unossified for years; The Patella seems to be the last in which Ossification begins. In the next place we are to consider the Theory of Ossification. This was accounted for by saying, that every part of our body has a Tendency to grow harder, that a bone is at first a fluid, next a Jelly, next a Gristle, & next becomes bone; Nuyoch made a great noise about this some time. It was then said that the Action of Muscles and of the Vis Vita in general condensed the soft substance into bone, and that the Action of the Arteries assisted in condensing them, but numerous Observations teach us that it is not proper

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pressure, which converts the Cartilages into Bone, something more is required towards Ossification. Others have said that Gristle was converted into bone by a Deposition of earthy Particles into its pores, and becomes stony, and as a proof of this they say, if a Bone is steeped in an Acid, it becomes soft from the Acids dissolving all the earthy Matter & leaving the Bone in its cartilaginous state; that the earthy Matter is dissolved by the Acid is plain, for if an Alkali be added to the Solution the earth will be precipitated in a fine powder; This is one of the most general opinions among the Moderns, - Another opinion is that of Du Hamel, or rather taken from D Grew, who in his Anatomy of Plants says, that a layer of wood is produced from the Bark of a Tree yearly, so that when the Trunk is cut transversely, it makes a concentric Surface, that the Bark was converted into Wood, & that by the number of these layers the Age of a Tree might be known. Du Hamel made a number of Experiments to prove that bone is formed by the Addition of hardned Laminae of Ossitium run into Ossification, as the Wood is formed of Bark, & said that the Callus was formed in the same manner. This theory tho' ingenious, cannot possibly be true, because we observe, that Ossification begins in the middle & internal part of the Spheroidal Bones. D Hewitt's Theory seems to be most plausible, and best founded, it was first published about 40 years ago; Haller hardly mentions it, & Albinus not at all, because D Hewitt took his Opinion from Albinus, and published it as his own; He says that Bone is a new Substance, and not a Gristle changed into bone, & that the manner of its production is two fold, in some parts that the Bones grow in Membranous beds, as the bones of the Skull and the Teeth, in others the bone is formed as in a bed of Gristle, an Argument for the bone being a new Substance is, that where the bone is found in Gristle, they are manifestly two different substances, and may be separated at the Epiphyses. It might be said that the fibres of the Cartilage

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Cartilage are continued from one end of a bone to the other, & that the bony matter is deposited round them; but the Epiphysis is easily separated from a bone, without the least appearance of a Gristle breaking, and by long steeping that part of the bone which is ossified, it may be taken out of the middle of the Gristle, like a kernel from its shell, and after steeping a bone & pulling off its Periosteum to clean it, the Gristle separates with the least possible force, the bony part too is extremely vascular but the Vessels terminate abruptly when the Gristle begins. This seems to be the best Theory, that Bone is a new formed Substance, there is one thing which may seem to be an objection to it. We may ask, if Bone is a new formed Substance, what is that which remains behind the steeping of a bone in an Acid as to dissolve all its earthy Particles? It is not Gristle, ~~but~~ it may be said to be the Skeleton of a Bone, composed of Vessels & Gluten cementing the particles together. We have now done with the general Lectures on the Constituent parts of the body, and shall next proceed to the particular Anatomy of the parts beginning with the bones. According to Dr Hewitt, Bones may be said to have their seeds, that the seeds of the bones which form the Arch of the Skull are deposited in a membranous bed composed on the inside of the Dura Mater, and the out side of the Periosteum, and that in all other parts of the body the seeds of the bones are deposited in beds of Gristle, and that no Bones appear to shoot in a fibrous manner, but those that form the Arch of the Skull.

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Lecture. 16th

In describing particular bones we make use of the Skeleton, which is of two kinds Natural and Artificial: When a Skeleton is prepared with the Ligaments & Cartilages remaining, and connecting the bones together, it is called a Natural one: if in the preparation the bones are connected together by Art, as by Wire &c. it is then called an Artificial Skeleton. The most common order of demonstrating the bones is to begin with the Head, and so proceed downwards to the Feet; but this is a bad Method, because the bones of the Head are the hardest to be understood, besides we consider the Head as an extreme part of the body; it is better therefore to begin with the Basis of the Whole, and as the most Natural state of the body seems to be sitting or lying, the Trunk at first view will appear to be the Basis, we will therefore begin with the Trunk. The Trunk naturally divides itself into an upper, and a lower part, the Chest & the Pelvis connected together by a Bone Chain called the Spine. As the Spine forms the principal part we shall describe that first. The Spine runs the whole length of the Trunk, from the head to a little below the Anus, it is composed of the Os Sacrum, the Os Coccygis, & twenty four Vertebrae. The Spine in a well formed body appears to grow up perfectly straight; if examined in a fore, or back View it makes several curvatures: the reason why the head appears to be turned downwards, is, because we are commonly employed in looking at something below the level of the eyes. The Spine may be said to resemble two unequal Pyramids joined at their Bases, the Vertebra forming one, and the Os Sacrum & Os Coccygis the other. It is given us with three intentions; first, to be a chain of bones connecting all the parts of the body together, & when in an erect posture the whole as a perpendicular Pillar, its principal strength being in the fore part. Secondly,

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Secondly, by being formed in different pieces it allows the body, while the processes of the different Vertebrae serve for convenient Attachment to many Muscles; thirdly, it serves to protect the Spinal Marrow, the least Cough of which in the back causes immediate Death. It will not be necessary to describe every constituent bone, for by giving a general description of one, we shall in a great measure comprehend the whole. In each Vertebra, we may remark first, that the body of it makes the Pillar for support; next that it has one Spinal, two transverse, and four Oblique or Articular Processes with a hole between the body of the Spinal Process, for the passage of the Spinal Marrow. In the sides of the body of each Vertebra at the root of each transverse Process there is a notch which forms with the Process of the Vertebra above it, a hole, that communicates with the great Medullary Canal thro' which passes a pair of Nerves. These holes in the Spine are called the Lateral holes. The bodies of the Vertebrae have a Ligamentous Substance on their upper or under Surface to unite them to one another, this is composed of concentric fibres hard on the outside, & almost gelatinous within. The Articular Processes make a moveable Joint, and are therefore tipped with a small Cartilage where they touch. The Proofs of the Spinal Processes are connected together by an Elastic Ligament similar to white leather. These in general have but little Motion: the twisting Motion of the spine is greatest where the Vertebrae are largest; the running gradual twisting of the back is only that of the Head. We shall here make a few Reflections on Ligaments. That Ligament between the Bodies of the Vertebrae, is not Elastic. But behind there are Elastic Ligaments between the Spinal Processes. These Elastic Ligaments in some measure serve the purpose of keeping the body upright, for without Muscular Action the body bends forwards by its own Gravity, so that these Ligaments serve to

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we see to assist the muscles, because all the Voluntary muscles soon tire when in action, and when fatigued & relaxed the body would fall forwards, but those Elastic Ligaments prevent it, till the muscles acquire power, and by being Elastic they do not hinder the bending of the body by the Flexors. Nature has provided Elastic Ligaments to keep up the Talons of a Lion, Tiger, Cat, & other Inadmirable of this kind to keep their points from being worn away. These Ligaments are stretched along the upper part of the Bones of the Trunk, keep the Talons drawn up in the Sheaths, when the Creature does not mean to use them, they have a great deal of Muscular Action. We have considered the Vertebrae in general, & now we will consider the peculiarities. The Vertebrae are twenty four in Number, we divide them into three Classes, seven Cervical, twelve Dorsal, & five Lumbar. We may observe of the Lumbar Vertebra, that the greatest breadth of their bodies is from side to side, that Spinal Processes run almost Horizontally, the upper edge being thinner than the under, their transverse processes are long & slender, the middle Vertebra has the longest of all, all the lower Oblique Processes articulate with the upper. The hole for the Medulla Spinalis in these Vertebrae is Triangular. The bodies of the Vertebrae of the Back project forward, therefore they are broadest from the Fore to the back part, & there is a notch on each side where the Ribs are articulated, which distinguishes them from the Lumbar & Cervical, their Spinal Processes are long & pointed downwards, the transverse are the strongest of all in the Spine, have a Cartilage on their end where the Ribs are articulated, (except the two lower ones, which have hardly any transverse process) The Articular or Oblique Processes have nothing particular in them, the Canal for the Spinal Marrow is small, & round. The Vertebrae of the Neck are the smallest, their bodies project very little forward, hardly beyond the transverse processes, and are flattened.

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flattened on the fore part the principal length then is from side to side, the surface of each Vertebra is rounded, at the bottom, & hollow at the top, their Spinal Processes are short and end in two points; each of the transverse Processes except perhaps of the lower Vertebra, has a hole for the Vertebral or Cervical Artery (principally) to go up to the Skull, the Medullary Canal is triangular as in the Lumbar. The two last or upper Vertebra of the neck are different from the others, & deserve particular Attention. The lower of the two called Vertebra Dentata from a Tooth-like Process in its upper part, around which the Head moves by means of the Atlas in the Rotatory Motion, that part of the Process which rubs upon the Atlas, is covered with a smooth Cartilage, the Spinal Process is remarkably long, & stronger than in the other Cervical, for the convenient Attachment of Muscles that turn the head from one side to an other, the oblique or Articular Processes are two round Convex Surfaces, which allow the Atlas to move round on them. The last or upper Vertebra of the neck is very little more than a Bony ring, having as it were a double Canal, the interior part of the Canal receives the Tooth-like Process; the Spinal Marrow passes down the posterior, a very strong Ligament divides the two to prevent the tooth-like Process from pressing on the Spinal Marrow, for should the Process be dislocated & press upon the Spinal Marrow, it causes immediate Death; (If an awl be run into the Spinal Marrow at this part it kills without a Consultation.) That part of the Atlas which plays upon the Processus Dentatus has a Cartilaginous Surface, its Spinal Process is very small, & cannot be felt in the living Subject, the transverse processes are larger than in the other Cervical Vertebra to allow convenient Attachment to several Muscles. Anatomists observe that the Spine is exceedingly well adapted as a Pillar of Support to the body, it is a fine Composition of Strength & Flexibility, made up of a number of joints; many have supposed that there are so many Vertebra that the Spinal Marrow might not be bent too much in the several Motions of the body, which must have been the case, had

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Case, had there been only two or three, but we may observe, that where the Spinal Marrow is most important, as in the Neck, it is most bent, at least bent where it is least important as in the Loins; the true reason appears to be to make the Back the strongest, for joints are always weak in proportion to the largeness of their Motion. The Spine is often found awry or crooked, & this has been accounted for very differently, by different Authors. Flacius, Du Hamel, & Gleditsius say, that from some unknown cause the Bones grow thicker on one side than on the other, which must of course throw the Body awry. Maryear, who was of opinion that the Muscles of the body were always in action to keep up an Equilibrium, says, that from a weakness of the Muscles on one side, the Trunk is drawn to the other by the prevailing ones, & thus the Muscles were the cause of a distorted Spine. Ossification, we have shewn, evidently depends on Cartilaginous or bony Matter being produced in the Habit, but in some Constitutions the bones are too soft, as in the Rickets, from a deficiency of the Ossific Matter. Now when bones are too soft to support the weight of the Spine, what must be the consequence? If the spine was to be kept always in an Erect & Perpendicular posture, the consequence would be, the body would not grow to its proper height, because the Vertebra would be flattened, but in general the weight of the body presses more on one side than the other; and the bones being so easily bent when soft take a Curve, not from the Ossification being irregular on one side, but by the pressure on the Spine from Above, for where the pressure is the greatest the Vertebra will give way most, & if we examine Crooked Spines, we shall find, that on the concave side, part of the bony matter has been actually squeezed out forming several little bony Throats.

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Lecture 17th

When once a Curve is formed in this soft state of the Bones, it increases commonly very fast; if the spine is curved in any considerable degree, it becomes curved in another place also, one hip being higher than the other; the reason of this is because when we move the body, we are always obliged to bring the Pelvis to the Center of Gravity, so that when a spine is much distorted, we always find two Curvatures at least; It may be asked at what time of life does this Curvature begin in the spine? In general not very early in life; in Rickets, Subjects it frequently does not begin to bend till after they are Ten years old, & sometimes not before their eighteenth year, tho' perhaps their Legs are growing crooked all that time; I then observe, the reason why the Curvature of the spine does not begin sooner is, because the Cartilages do not ossify all late in life, & the Cartilages cannot be bent to that form, so that the most crooked Persons are always born straight. Children are often born with a kind of fullness or small gutting bet of the Ribs on one side more than the other, but this is a thing of no consequence, we may be pretty certain it will soon encrease. The first Symptom of Rickets is an enlargement of the lower end of the ulnar Radius, & of the lower end of the latter; they become soft & spongy near the anterior bony ends; where they join the Cartilage, & swell & form Knobs: the Tibia is common; only the first bone that bends; Every Appearance in these Cases is easily accounted for, the softness of the bones, & the pressure made on them. The best Method to prevent Crooked Spines is to strengthen the Constitution, to Effect this no Remedy is equal to Cold bathing, especially if the water is very cold. Children of Ricketty Habits may be used to it very soon, they should continue in the water but a very little time, only an entire dip and out again, afterwards they should be well dried & scrubbed. Such Children have often violent & dangerous Eruptions, but this does not forbid.

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Forbid the use of the Cold Bath—when the spine is much bent, but can be of little service; but by tracing the habit we may perhaps prevent the disease from growing worse. Lying in an Horizontal posture should be used as much as conveniently can, & when up the Patient should sit in a Chair which has a back & Collar fixed to it to support the head, & keep off pressure as much as possible. Another kind of Precaution is when from a softness of the bones, the spine bends in a sigmoidine form, such persons are commonly very weak in their Limbs, tho' seldom Paralytic, but when the Curvature shoots in an Angle as is sometimes the Case, (as is supposed to be owing to the spine's being broken or injured; tho' it commonly attacks young Persons from a Diaphyseal Cause.) the Palsy of the lower extremities is the consequence beginning gradually, with a numbness & weight of the Legs, and this generally before any Bunch is observed on the Back; it is sometimes caused by a blow on the Spine, & sometimes from an Abscess destroying part of the body of one or more of the Vertebrae. If we are consulted upon a Case where there is a numbness or weakness in both Legs, we may certainly conclude that the Injury is not in the Legs, but in the spine, and we should carefully examine the Patient to see whether a Vertebra has started, which is a Case that happens more frequently than is generally imagined; indeed when known we can do but very little; it will however be proper to make the Patient lie as much as conveniently can be done to take off the pressure. Commonly we have 24 Vertebrae, sometimes tho' very rarely, there is a Supernumerary One, it was some years ago observed, that a man is not so tall & bright as in a morning, and this was accounted for by saying the Cartilages between the Vertebrae were pressed closer together in the daytime by the weight of the body, which spring removed its effects were taken off by lying in

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lying in an horizontal position, they expand towards the morning, & render the body taller, but several little circumstances will also contribute to produce this effect; the Cartilages of the joints of the lower Extremities, by being continually pressed during the day, may have some of their Elasticity destroyed, & their fibres made to lie closer, which pressure being removed by lying in Bed during the night, the Cartilage may resume their Elasticity, & former thickness. Another circumstance too is this; the fleshy part of the Top of the Head, & sole of the Feet are thickened during sleeping horizontally, by the blood flowing to them in a greater quantity at that time; all these Circumstances concur to make us a little taller in the morning than in the evening. We now come to consider the lower part of the Spine, the Pelvis. This is a strong irregular Circular bone making the lower part of the Trunk, hollow on the inside; the great use of this part of the body is to make a fixed point for the attachment of very many Muscles, and to support the body in sitting and standing, therefore the bones go all round. These Bones go downwards in three parts making three Notches; thro' them the great Sciatic Nerve passes; ^{down to the Thigh} in the Anterior Notch the Part of Generation lies; the two Sides Notches are called the great Sciatic Notches. We call that the cavity of the Pelvis which reaches downwards from the Os Pubis before, and upper part of the Os Sacrum behind; all above it belongs to the general cavity of the Uterus, therefore the Bowels pass an angle in passing from one to the other. The Pelvis is made of three pieces, rarely separated from one another; behind is the Os Sacrum and Os Coccygis which together form one, Triangular bone, and on each side of this are the Os Ilium & Ischia, meeting before and firmly adhering, thro' the Sacrum is something like the

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like the Vertebrae, it has holes for nerves, spinal, Transverse, & Oblique Processes, and Bodies evidently distinguished by ridges on its inside, it has commonly four pair of Foramina, sometimes five, thro' the undermost Foramina the Nerves pass that make the great Sciatic, but the use of those behind is not so clear, as there is no principal nerve passes from them. The Connection between the last Vertebra of the Loins, and the Sacrum is the same as that of the other Vertebra with one another, the Coccygis is of a very spongy Nature, so that it is frequently destroyed by boiling the bones; it may be said to be composed of four bones which have some motion in young Subjects: we may observe great Varieties in different bodies; most of a Saur are generally composed of five bones; sometimes they have six, and the Coccygis has but three. D^r Sall in the Introductory Preface to his translation of the Quran, says that Mahomet taught that all the body of a Man was reduced to Dust except the Coccygis, which is preserved as a Leaven to make a new body, so that it never dies; in Quadrupeds it is continued to form the Tail, Capree, or Perengarius Capreeus, as he is called, in the Year 1520 wrote a Comment upon the Books of Mundevius, which was held in the greatest Veneration by himself and others as mentioned in the Introduction, he says that in far distant Western Islands [he lived in Italy] there is a People called Hibernis, with long Tails, two of whom he had seen, but as he had not handled them he could not tell whether the Substance of the Tail was Cartilaginous, Fleishy, or otherwise, and Pinnace at this present time thinks that some of the Human Race have Tails, for instance, the Benan Sultan at the time of Hawey a story of this kind

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kind was believed by him; he tells us that a Surgeon returned from the East Indies, a man of stricte infirmity, informed him, that he saw a young Germal taken from the Woods in the Island Borneo, who had a long Tail, but it is very certain among the Human Species there is nothing of this kind. Dioscorus Siculus tells us of a voyage undertaken in consequence of a Dream to find out very rich things; the Voyage after the third day's sail came to an Island where the People were different from themselves, (Egyptians) they had ears reaching so long down on each side, and so broad, that they served as a Bed and Lawning, when they reclined on either side, and they were Cloven or Double tongued, so that they could hold conversation with two Persons at the same time. However the Relations of these Stories are respected, they are nothing more than flagrant Impositions upon the Credulity of Mankind. By Commerce we not only acquire a great stock of useful Learning, but get rid of many Prejudices which we imbibed when young. It had been said that the Occidentia lani was owing to a Distressed State of the Os Coccygis, but it is not, it is an excrescence of the Rudum. The Os Innominaum is originally made up of three pieces, called the Os Iochium, Ilium, and Pubis. The Ilium makes part of the Acetabulum, and below it constitutes a part of the Wall of the Pelvis, the four part of the spine of the Ilium terminates in a Point called the Anterior Superior Spinal Process, and a little below this is another called the Anterior Inferior Spinal Process; on the hinder end of the spine there are said to be two Posterior Processes, but it is only a small notch in the Bone; the Iochium forms a part of the Acetabulum, and every where is a part of the Pelvis, behind I have a small

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small Process directed towards the sacrum, below this is the Tubercle of the Ilium upon part of which we rest when sitting. Ligaments go from the Os Sacrum to the small Process and Tubercle of the Ilium so as to enclose the Iliac Notch; between these Ligaments the Internal Obturator foramen passes and plays round the bone, as on a Pulley. The Os Pubis joins its fellow on the opposite side, which junction is called the Symphysis. It forms a part of the Pelvicium and of the great Foramen, and composes part of the walls of the Pelvis, where it forms the upper arch of the great Foramen it has a notch for the Artery, Vein, and Nerve, called the Obturator, on its upper Surface there is an hollowings over which Poypart's Ligament is stretched and forms a passage for the Cerebral Vessels, which run down between the Cutaneous, and united Tendons of the Psoas and Iliacus Internus.

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Lecture, 18th

The Foramen Magnum is oval, just over and before the Tuberosity of the Isthmus, it gives position to the Obturators Interni and Externi, and the Obturator forsy, Vena, and Nerve make a Channel in the Superior Part. The Basin of the Acetabulum is not equally high all round, but is defective in some towards the great Foramen, or lower, and rather on the anterior part, which defect is supplied with a strong Ligament. The Acetabulum is deepened by having a Cartilage raised round the Basin. The Bones of the Pelvis allow of little or no Motion, and are firmly connected together by strong Ligaments, else the weight of the Abdominal Contents might separate them. It has been said that the great Foramen was provided to suffer the little Trochanter to come near the Pelvis when we bring the Thigh to the Pubis, but I never apprehend it aches very near in any position we can put the Thigh in. We have now described the Spine and Pelvis, and shall in the next place make some general reflections on the latter. We can generally distinguish a Male from a Female Skeleton by the size and general strength of the bones; the Male bones are broader, thicker and stronger than the Female, and bear more evident Marks of the print of the Muscles, but as there are strong robust Women and small Men, we are liable to be sometimes deceived. The Chest of a Woman has been said to be flatter than a Man's because of the pressure of the Breasts, but this is rather Theoretical than from Observation. The Pelvis is the most certain Mark, by which to distinguish the Sex of a Skeleton, but in this too we may be deceived; generally however

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however
 the Cavity of the Pelvis in Females is of a rounder figure and broader, tho' some Men's have this Shape also, but the appearance below is much more constant, the three points formed by the Os Coccygis and Osæ Ischia, are much farther distant from each other in a Woman than in a Man, the anterior notch under the Pubis is much wider, and forms a much less acute angle, and the great Sciatic notches are much larger in the Female; The final cause of this large Make of the Pelvis in a Woman is that these bones may be wide enough to let the Child pass thro' in Child birth, and they say that they open at the time of those pains we call Grinding Pains; We cannot absolutely say, that it may not be so sometimes at the Symphysis of the Pubis, but they must open exceedingly little indeed. In examining many bodies, we shall scarce ever find a cavity in the joint of the Pubis, sometimes however it is found, and is now, then the seat of Inflammation and Suppuration. A Woman had a large Collection of Matter in this part, which diffused itself all round the Pubis within and without, and at last killed her, the Symphysis and part of the Substance of the Osæ Pubis were destroyed. To relieve this Case, at first a depending Trifur should have been made with a lance under the Pubis just before the Medus Urinarius internally, because on the outside of the Pubis there is much Skin and Cellular Membrane, and besides the Trifur would not be depending. By force the Osæ Pubis may be divided at their Symphysis, as was the Case of a Gentleman at Worcester; he was a heavy Man and by a sudden turn of his Horse his thigh was drawn outwards, and by that means the Bones were torn asunder, and the Bladder ruptured, the Urine got into the Cellular Membrane at the bottom

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bottom of the Pelvis, and he did. The Bones of the Pelvis may be distorted in consequence of their being soft in the same manner as the Vertebrae, and are most liable to it in women, who are by nature weaker than men. The Distortion is made in this manner, towards the Pelvis the Vertebrae of the Loins are convex, and the Sacrum is concave; Now if the Bones are soft, the body pressing downward will bend the Lumbar Vertebra inwards towards the Pubis, which is the reason why the distance between the Spine and Pubis is so little in all misformed Pelvises: the large Surface of the Gluteum pressed upon by the viscera force that part opposite to the Acetabulum inwards towards the Sacrum, the Coccygis is bent round and its point turned upwards, because in sitting and lying down the pressure bends the Coccygis, and bending the Sacrum to the point of the former is inverted. In sitting pressure is made upon the Tuberosities of the Ischium, and the middle part between them and the Pubis giving way, they are forced upwards, and inwards. From softness of the Bones and pressure all the distortions in the several parts of the Pelvis are cavity accounted for; as the Bones in these Cases are void of an equal softness, we may sometimes see very crooked Legs with a well formed Pelvis, and at another time a very distorted Pelvis with straight Legs. In the most common distortion of the Pelvis, it is made narrow from the Sacrum to the Pubis and the cavity of the Pelvis is largest on one side by the spine being forced away to the other, as mentioned in the Distorted Spine with a second Curve. The Bones do not open visibly, to enlarge the cavity to let the head

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the head of the Child pass in birth when it is very large. We might suppose that a woman could not be delivered of a Child whose head was larger than the width of the Pelvis, but the bones of the Head are so formed as to give way to pressure, the head becomes narrower & longer, and passes after a few hours severe labour; in such cases we should wait the efforts of nature, and we shall be surprised to see what wonderfull things she can do. If not hurt by the hand or instrument, a woman will as certainly recover after three days strong severe labour, as after three hours slight pains only, before she is delivered. It is indeed sometimes necessary to pull the Child's head away by pieces with the Instruments, where the Sacrum and Pubis are so near one another, as not to give the least hope of the Child's head being capable of passing down, and sometimes it has happened, that they are so very near as to hinder even this being done, and the only means to be then used is to save the Child at least by the Caesarian Section. In the case where Mr Thompson performed the Caesarian operation, the passage between the Sacrum and Pubis was but $\frac{7}{8}$ of an inch wide, so that it would have been fruitless, if they had attempted to pick the Child away, therefore the operation was justifiable. We come next to the Bones forming the Thorax or Chest, which was so called because it serves as a Box or Case to hold the Heart and Lungs. It dilates and contracts in Respiration, and serves as fixed points for Attachment to many Muscles; its Shape is conical the small end being uppermost and there is an aperture in its upper part, thro' which the Oesophagus, Trachea,

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Trachea, and Blood Vessels of the Arms and Head pass - (the apparent Cavity of the Thorax contains some of the Viscera of the Abdomen.) The Thorax has on its fore part the Sternum, and on its sides the Ribs. The Description of these finishes the Trunk. A Rib is a crooked Bone, running from the Spine to the Sternum, the posterior part is called the Head, tho' it is not round, it goes in between two Vertebrae with two Surfaces for Articulation with the Vertebra; that part of the Rib which is once bent than the rest (near its head) is called the Angle of the rib, it gives attachment to the Saccus Lumbaris Muscle, the upper edge is round and thick, the lower is made thin and sharp by a Groove in which runs the Intercoastal Artery, Vein, and Nerve. The Ribs are divided into two Classes; those whose Cartilages immediately join the Sternum, are called true Ribs, and are seven in Number; the other five whose Cartilages do not immediately join the Sternum, are called false, or Rascal Ribs. The first six Intercoastalia are greater forwards than backwards; The Ribs run inclining downwards from the Spine, and the lower Ribs incline the most; the distance from the Angle of the Rib to the Transverse Process increases downwards. The anterior Extremities of the Bony Part of the Ribs recede farther from the Middle Line as they go downwards; excepting in the first Rib where it is farther off than in the second or third; and of course this Rib has a longer Cartilage. Note the Cartilages and Bony part of the Ribs run in different directions. The Length of the Ribs increases downwards to the right, and then decreases again; the first Rib is the most crooked, and they become afterwards straighter, and straighter to the last. A Peculiarity in the first is, that its flat sides are upwards and downwards, because it lays on the top of the Lungs, the flat.

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the flat sides of the Thorax inward and outward, so that the flat side of all the Ribs are next the Lungs; The Subclavian Vessels make two flattened Surfaces on the first rib, where they pass over between it and the Clavicle; the Artery before and the Vein behind. The two last Ribs are articulated with the body of the Vertebra, and not with their Transverse Processes. Their Cristles are lost in the Flesh of the Abdomen. The Sternum is situated upwards and backwards, it is divided into three Bones, or Pieces; The first & second called the Sternum, and the lower one called the Xiphoid Cartilage; it is partly Bone, and partly Cartilage and runs down on the Muscles of the Belly; there are two Cavities on the upper part of the Sternum where the Clavicles are articulated, The second Rib has its Cartilage always inserted between the first & second bone of the Sternum. In opening the Thorax in a dead body, after having separated the Cartilages from the Ribs by cutting the Ligament and Periosteum, the inside of the junction of the first and second bone, we can turn up the Sternum without the trouble of separating the Clavicles.

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Lecture 19th

The Motion of the Ribs and Sternum must be considered together; they evidently serve for Respiration, and are moved by different Muscles; In proportion as the Ribs are raised, the Sternum is raised also, and the Cavity of the Chest enlarged; during this Motion the heads of the ribs act at a little on the bodies of the Vertebrae, and some of them have Epiphyses, viz. which is somewhat remarkable; From the necessary Function of Respiration we see the reason why the ribs of Children whose Mothers went their full time, are always ossified at birth; for that the Muscles might raise and depress the ribs, it was necessary they should be inflexible; If a Child is born before its proper time, the ribs sometimes are not perfectly ossified, a remarkable Case of this kind Dr. Mead mentions: a Child was born at six Months, its ribs were cartilaginous and so soft, that the external Atmosphere pressed them inward in Inspiration, by which Breathing was so much disordered, as to occasion Death soon after. As the ribs want Air no weight, they would not in general grow deformed, but distortion of the Spine must affect them because they are articulated with each other; when a Spine is distorted the Ribs on the convex side more than from which the Spine is projected are farther from each other than naturally they are, on the concave side they are squeezed closer together, & on the convex side they are bent backwards, & come over the bodies of the Vertebrae very near, indeed so as often to destroy that side of the Cavity of the Thorax, and shove the Lungs over to the other side, which greatly obstructs Respiration: the hump or the most projecting part of the back is commonly made by the Angle of the ribs, but sometimes it is made by the Vertebrae. Though we see the Legs & Back of a Woman very much

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very much distorted, yet we must not conclude immediately that the Pelvis is so too, and that if she is with Child the Labour will be difficult; for it frequently happens that the Pelvis is well formed in such cases, the softness of the bones not being always general, but confined to some particular ones only; Almost all Distorted Persons seem to have a great length of Legs and Arms, because they originally proportioned to the height of the body, would still have been so if the Vertebra had not been compressed; Crooked Persons are generally weakly, and short lived because the Viscera are compressed and greatly impeded in their functions. The high breast bone in a distorted Chest is occasioned most probably by the Heart's action, pressing forwards for want of room, Cheselden says, the ribs of Children may be depressed or broke inwards like a green stick without the broken ends being separated, by the hand of their Nurses in dancing them as hoisting them up on one hand, but in such Cases Dr Hunter thinks there is always a preternatural softness of the Bones. Binding of the ribs when fractured, or when Persons are Pleuritic must certainly give great ease by obliging them to breathe with the Diaphragm alone, because the stretching of inflamed parts always gives great pain. It has been recommended to trepan the Sternum to let out matter when supposed to be collected in the Mediastinum, but this Case never occurs so as to make this Operation necessary, for the bag of matter must be broader than the Sternum, so as to extend beyond its edges, else we cannot know that there is matter there, and when this is the Case, it may be let out without hurting the Sternum; besides there is no cavity in the Mediastinum. It has been said that the Siphoid Cartilage may be broken off from the Sternum.

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Sternum, and that its point being turned inward, may occasion very bad Symptoms, but if it should be beat in, the pressure of the Viscera will soon replace it, and no mischief will ensue. From these reflections the bad effects of tight lacing are very obvious, the Chest will be pressed closer and its contents forced downwards, on those of the Abd. overru, which likewise are compressed by the stays, so that Respiration must be greatly impeded, the consequence of which is more dangerous than commonly imagined. We have now gone thro' the Trunk, and shall next proceed to the Extremities.

The Bones of the Upper Extremity

The Upper Extremity is composed of the Shoulder, the Arm, the Fore-arm, and the Hand. The Shoulder is made up of two bones, the Clavicle forwards, and the Scapula backwards. The two Surfaces of the Scapula are called Regions, the inner called the Subscapular, is covered with a large Muscle, called Subscapularis: the outer is divided by a large Spinal Process into two Regions, the upper called Supraspinal, and the inner called Infraspinous Region. The first is filled up by the Supraspinatus Muscle, the last by the Infraspinatus Muscle. The edge of the Spine gives origin to many Muscles. The edge of the Scapula all round has Muscles attached to it, at the upper end is a Notch with a Ligament stretched across so as to make it a hole for the passage of an Artery, a Vein, and a Nerve. The Glenoid Cavity is oval, and to afford strength to the joint the Neck of the bone is made thick. The Spine of the Scapula begins at the Basis, & runs on to form the Acromion immediately over the

The Bones of the Upper Extremity

As Humeri: the Coracoid Process comes from the neck of the Bone, & goes round the fore & inner part of the joint. When we lift our Arm above an Horizontal Line the Scapula rotates on its Center. The Clavicle is somewhat of the form of an Italian Letter S, at the under part of it, and near its anterior end, where it is articulated with the top of the Sternum, there is a considerable pit from whence a strong Ligament is stretched across to its fellow inwards. Near the End articulated with the Acromion, it is flat upwards and downwards, and on the under side there is a Tuberosity from whence a Ligament goes to bind it to the Coracoid Process below. The great use of the Scapula and Clavicle is to allow a variety of motions to the Arms by their swinging loosely, no other bone, but the Scapula (the Os Hyoides excepted) moves out of its place, and besides its moving forwards & backwards &c. it has a rotatory motion on its Center. The Use of the Clavicle is to keep out the head of the Scapula, & give the joint a more advantageous situation for motion in the Human Subject. The common Quadrupeds have out of it as the beaver & keeper Mr John Hunter finds, that those Quadrupeds which sit upon their hinder extremities, & perform various motions with their fore feet have a Clavicle as Monkeys, Squirrels, & others of that kind. As the Clavicle is a very narrow bone, when it is fractured one end easily slides or shoves over the other end, to rectify this the Shoulders should be drawn back, and confined in that position. Between its articulation of the Sternum, there is a moveable Cartilage; to prevent Dislocation of the Clavicle Nature has provided two uncommon Ligaments one running across to the Anterior end inwards, & one from the Coracoid Process

See

The Bones of the Upper Extremity

In considering the Humerus, & all the other bones of the Arm & Hand we shall suppose them placed so as that the Thumb be outwards, tho' that be not the most natural position of the Arm. When the Centres of the Cartilaginous surfaces of the Head and cavity coincide, the Arm is in a middle position, between its greatest Elevation & lowest pitch. On the forepart the Head is divided by a Groove into two Protuberances, the inner for the Subscapularis Muscle, & the outer for the short head of the Biceps. The Groove receives theendon of the long head of the Biceps. There are many protuberances & impressions of muscles on this bone; toward the lower end on the outside the Surface is very broadly flat for the Brachaeus Extensus; & on the inside too for the Brachaeus Internus; at the outer Condyle there is a roughness for the Attachment of the Extensor Muscles of the Fingers, and at the inner Condyle for the Flexors of the Fingers: on the fore part there is a Cavity for receiving the Anterior Process of the Ulna, on the back there is another for the posterior Process of the same Bone. That part of the bone on which the Ulna moves is called the Trochlea or Pulley; & that on which the Radius moves is called the small head: at the Shoulder this bone performs all the different kinds of Motion which should be very attentively considered, and the joint a Surgeon should have a thorough knowledge of, because it is greatly exposed to Accidents. The Arm has not so much Motion as it is commonly thought to have, great part of what appears to be proper to the Arm being made by the Capula. Dislocations of the Humerus are often very difficult to discover from other Alterations in the part. Dr Hunter related the Case of a Man whose Shoulder had been fractured between two Carts. It was no easy matter to say what injury had been done.

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been done to particular parts, but to find it out, he proceeded thus; I first said he felt for the Clavicle at the Sternum, then traced by degrees till I came to the Acromion, where I found the head of the bone not right, then from the Base of the Scapula I felt along the Spinal Process, & when I came just to the Acromion, there was plainly something amiss, the head of the Humerus was not only dislocated, but the Acromion was beat off from the Scapula and adhered to the end of the Clavicle sticking up in its right place, the Arm with the Scapula being unsupported fell down, which altered the appearance of the Shoulder entirely, but by raising up the Arm the Case was easily discerned. By this mode of examining the Shoulder, the Drays, we shall hardly ever fail finding out the real state of the Case, For dividing the Capsular Ligament of the Joint in the Operation of Amputation, the Arm must not be turned upwards, because the Ligament will then be carried under the Acromion out of our way, and we shall run a great risk in missing the joint, but the Arm should be held close to the side, and then it will be divided with ease & certainty. The two great Marks by which we know that the Humerus is dislocated are these, first the head of the Humerus cannot be felt at the Shoulder immediately under the Acromion, but in its stead there is a kind of Dent or Cavity to be felt; Secondly the Arm appears crooked as if broken in the middle because some of the Muscles are drawn out of their place, while the Deltoid Muscle keeps its own Line.

The Bones of the upper Extremity

Lecture 20th

In the fore Arm there are two Bones the Ulna and Radius which are Articulated with the Os Humeri. The Ulna is longer and Larger than the Radius, It has at its upper end a long Process called the Olecranon, and on its fore part there is another called the Coronoid Process, between these Processes is the Articular Surface, that joins with the Os Humeri; on the distal side near the Coronoid Process is a hollow for the Radius to play in, down the outside of this Bone a ridge runs for the Attachment of the interosseous Ligament, at its lower and fore part there is a Ridge for the Attachment of the Pronator Quadratus; To examine the Ulna for a fracture we must trace the Bone from the Olecranon downwards and backwards, as the Bone can be felt all the way in that Direction, and not in any other, because on its fore part and sides it is covered with muscles.

The Radius is smaller than the former, its upper end which is articulated with the Humerus is called the Head, near this on the fore part (supposing as was said before that the Thumb is outward in the Position of the Arm and the Palm of the Hand directly forward) is a Tuberosity for the Tendon of the Biceps, down the inside of this bone a sharp edge runs corresponding with that of the Ulna for the Attachment of the interosseous Ligament, and the lower Part becomes flat for the Attachment of the Pronator Quadratus, on the hinder part of its lower end there are several Grooves which are found invariably the same in every subject in these Grooves run the different Tendons of the Thumb and Fingers.

The Radius is articulated above to the Os Humeri, and below to the Os Scaphoide. and Lunare Bones of the Carpus.

The Motion of the Radius at its upper end is round its Axis and with its lower end it describes great part of a Circle around the Ulna.

these

The Bones of the Upper Extremity

These bones make with the Wrist a Double Joint, which Nature has contrived to bring out a Variety of Motions. The fibres of the Interosseous Ligament run obliquely upward from the Ulna to the Radius which is admirably well contrived to prevent the Radius from being Dislocated upwards. When we bind up a fractured Limb, we should place it in a middle State between Flexion and Extension, and the Arm between Pronation and Supination; All the Extensor Muscles going to the hand arise from the Outer Condyle of the Elbow, all the Flexors from the inner Condyle, that is, all those which go from the upper Part of the Arm, when the hand is supine they go obliquely downward, when it is prone they go in a Direct Line downwards. The Hand consists of Carpus, Metacarpus, the Fingers and Thumb. The Wrist is composed of eight bones, which together make a tolerable uniform convex surface behind, and before unevenly concave. The Ancients described these bones as making two Rows. The Os Scaphoides and Lunare making an oblong Row to join with the Lower End of the Radius, next to these is the Cuneiform bone, which has upon it internally the Pisiform bone; these four bones form the first rank; the second rank consists of the Trapezium to which the first bone of the Thumb is joined; next to these are the Trapezoides, Trapezium, and Cuneiform Bones, to which the four Metacarpal Bones are joined; the Trapezium has a projecting part inwards, which with the Pisiform bone makes an hollow by means of a Ligament stretched from One to the Other, called the Annular Ligament, under this Ligament the Tendons run to the hand. We should remember, that if we draw a Line in our Minds from the Os Pisiforme to the Trapezoides, that we have the Axis of a Long Oval; Nature has furnished such a Number of bones in this part to allow of a great quantity of Motion.

The Metacarpus consists of four bones, the Thumb being considered as having no Metacarpal bone; The upper Ends of these bones are called

The Bones of the upper Extremity,

called their *Basii*, and have cartilaginous Surfaces for moving on the *Carpus* backwards and forwards and a little laterally, their lower extremities called their heads are much the largest: the fore and Middle Metacarpal Bones have but little Motion, the other two have a great Deal, the Middle one being nearly the Center of Motion round which the other turn. The Fingers each of them consist of three Bones thickest at the Joints; they project but little backward, but a great Deal forwards. If we place the Fingers in their most natural State, that is, half bent, the Projection will be equal, their bodies are flat before, and round behind, because the *Flexor Tendones*, which lay on their fore part are much stronger, than the *Extensors* which run on their back part, which was once said because the Fingers only, act when bent. Their principal motions are those of Flexion, and Extension, with a little lateral Motion.

The ends of the last bones of the fingers are enlarged, and spongy for firmer Attachment to the flesh that covers them; the same may be said of the last bone of the Thumb. The Thumb has three bones, and is made stronger than the Fingers, because it is the Antagonist to them all. The Hand is an exceeding fine Instrument expanding itself to a Plane, and contracting to a Ball and performs a great Variety of Motions. Its Motions are combined with others; thus for Instance to describe a Circle with the end of the finger conveniently, we move the Finger, the Hand, the Wrist, the fore Arm, and the Arm, so that we see Nature has not only adapted each joint to its own proper Motion, but also made it subservient to the Motion of others.

So much for the upper Extremity, we proceed next to consider the Bones of the Lower Extremity; The Lower Extremity comprehends the Thigh, Leg, and Foot

The

The Bones of the Lower Extremity

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The Thigh Bone or Femur is articulated with the side of the Pelvis. It was absolutely necessary it should have this Position rather than being near the Central Line of the Body, because Room must be allowed for the Attachment of very strong Muscles to move it, and the Thigh bones are no farther asunder than is necessary to lodge these Muscles. When we stand with our feet together, the Thigh bones are situated obliquely to each other, and the lower Surface of the Condyles makes an horizontal Line; the head of the bone is removed by the neck from the line of the body of it. It has a great articular Surface to move in the Acetabulum, and points obliquely upwards and inwards; in the middle of the articular Surface there is a Pit for the Ligament where there is no Cartilaginous Surface. Near the neck of this bone is the great and lesser Trochanters, the first on the outside projects at the Hip, and has the Extensor Muscles of the Thigh attached to it, the second is on the inside, and has the Flexor Muscles of the Thigh attached to it; the body of the bone is pretty regular, on its back part from the Trochanters downwards there is a rough line called the Linea Aspera, which at the lower part divides into two, one running to one Condyle, and one to the other. The head of the bone not being in a line with its body, in flexion and Extension it only rotates, which oblique Position of the head makes this joint difficult to be understood. When the bone is fractured at its neck, it is sometimes mistaken for a Luxation only, it is best distinguished by the grating of the fractured Ends of the bone. In a Dislocation of this bone from the Acetabulum, we must make Extension by pulling in direction of the neck of the Bone, that is downwards, and outwards, this is particularly necessary to be observed when the head of the bone

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is thrown into the Groin and its neck rests upon the edge of the Pelvis. Dislocation at this Joint seldom happens, but when it does, the head of the bone may be found in every Part round the Acetabulum. It is exceedingly difficult to form a proper judgement in these Cases. We should attentively consider the Position of the leg in general, whether the Toes are turned inward or outward &c. A very common Deception in regard to Dislocation is when one Limb is shorter than the other; but we are not to consider the shortness of one Limb as a proof of Dislocation, for that may be owing to one Hip bone being raised higher than the other. It may also be caused by a Humour falling on the joint, and in this case there is often great Pain in the Thigh, which has caused the Disease to be mistaken for an Affection of that particular part.

The Bones of the Lower Extremity

Lecture 21.

The Weight of the Body does not press directly on the body of the Thigh bone, but on its head, so that if this bone be softened by the Rickets, the head of it will be pressed down sometimes as low as the Trochanter, and the body of the bone being naturally, curved forwards, it takes an Incurvation in that direction. Bones are weaker in proportion, as they are smaller, therefore when the Thigh bone is fractured it is commonly, about its middle. A Question has been proposed, and chiefly by the French Surgeons, whether or not Amputation is practicable at the joint of the Hip? As to the Possibility of performing the Operation there don't seem to be much doubt, but the great Loss of blood, and the great discharge which must necessarily ensue from so large a wound will make the operation generally fatal. The Leg is made of three bones, the Tibia, Fibula, and Patella; The Fibula is situated outwards, and backwards, a Process of it makes the outer Ankle. The Tibia on its upper Articular Surface has a middle sized Protuberance corresponding with the notch in the Femur, and behind there is a rough Groove for the Attachment of the Cross Ligament of the Joint that sets bounds to its Motion; below the Articular surface and on the fore part of the bone is a considerable protuberance for the Attachment of the Patella by means of a strong Ligament. In Amputation we must saw off the Bone below this part to avoid destroying the insertion of the Tendon of the Leg. The Body of the bone has three surfaces, the inner one of these is

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is the seat of the Nodes in the Venereal Disease; on the upper and hinder part is a Ridge for the Popliteus, and Solus Muscles; on its inside is a small dent for the Tibula, and at the lower end on the outside there is a concavity for receiving the lower end of the Tibula. A Piece of this bone forms the inner Ankle. The Patella may be considered as an Appendage to the Tibia; the upper part of it is called the Basis, the lower the Apex; to the Basis are fixed all the Tendons of the Extensors of the Leg, to the Apex is attached the Ligament of the Tibia. The Joint of the Tibia with the Femur admits only of Flexion and Extension, except when the Leg is but half extended, for it has then a small Rotatory Motion; because when the Leg is quite extended, the Cross Ligaments behind are tight, and confine the bones strictly together, but when it is half bent the Ligaments are loose, and allow the bones to rotate a little. In a transverse fracture of the Patella the Basis was thought to be separated from the Apex by a Jerk of the Muscles, in the same manner as the Tendo Achillis is fractured. Dr Hunter relates the case of a man who was passing thro' Holbourn with a Butcher on his head, and fell backwards, his Patella was fractured in the fall, tho' the knee did not touch the ground; this was supposed to be caused entirely by the action of the Muscles, but the true Reason is this, when the Leg is in a middle State between Flexion and Extension, the Patella rides on a transverse Cartilage, and so by any sudden Jerk is snapped in the same manner as we break a stick across the Knee. When the Patella is fractured, the cavity between the fractured end, and that of the Joint communicate.

The

The Bones of the Lower Extremity

The Tibula is every where marked by muscles, which cover it in - the middle externally, so as to hide it from the feel, but at its ends it may be felt Distinctly: at its lower end is a ridge externally, for the Tendon of the Peroneus longus to run behind. In Subjects with soft Bones the Tibia and Tibula may from a variety of circumstances be crooked in any direction, but the former lying on the Tibia rather behind, they are commonly curved forwards: just below the middle of the Tibia is the weakest part, where fractures most commonly happen, and when the Bones are soft it first gives way at that part, but not till the Child begins to walk. The Foot like the Hand is composed of three parts, the Tarsus, Metatarsus and Toes, the most natural Position of the Foot is with the Toes directly forwards: the foot is hollow below, narrow behind, and broad forwards; between the heel and ball of the foot it forms an Arch, and the bones underneath are firmly bound together by Ligaments to keep the Arch from being press'd in; the use of the Arch is to secure the muscles, Tendons, Nerves, and blood vessels from pressure, and make the foot much more stable, it also prevents the Body from being so much jarr'd in walking, Running &c as it otherwise would be. The Toes are press'd on when we walk, and in some measure support the body till we are quite fixed on the other Foot. The Tarsus is composed of seven bones, first the Astragalus (which forms the top of the Arch,) is adapted to the two Bones of the Leg above, below it is connected with the Os Calcis, and before to the Navicular.

The Os Calcis has below and behind Tuberosities for the Attachment of muscles and Ligaments, at its very hinder part the Tendo Achillis is fixed, between which, and the Astragalus there is a space filled with fat, and on the outside of the Os Calcis there is

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a groove for the Tendon of the *Pronaeus longus*; the five other bones of the *Tarsus* make the Instep, and are connected together by strong Ligaments. — Before the head of the *Astragalus* is the *Navicular*, before the *Os Calcis* is the *Os Cuboides*; the other three are called the *Ossa Coniformia*, the *Internal*, *Medial* and *External*; to the *External* the Tendon of the *Sibialis Anticus* is attached; the other two are hardly seen in the Arch of the foot; All these bones have considerable friction with one another, as those of the *Wrist* have, and to the lower end of them the *Metatarsal Bones* are fixed. — The *Toes* are so similar to *Fingers* that they need no particular description. — at the Root of the great *Toe* there is a Bump call'd the *Ball* of the great *Toe*, upon which we principally press in a landing, and walking; We call that the first *Phalanx* of the *Fingers* and *Toes*, which is next to the *Metacarpal* or *Metatarsal Bone*.

The *Astragalus* has so much cartilaginous surface, that if a Caric attacks it, the Joint is almost inevitably lost. We observe that the Heel goes back considerably, which is to form the larger Arch, and Allow more convenient attachment to the muscles of the calf of the Leg, in proportion as the Heels of the Shoes are high, we walk with greater disadvantage; Women who wear high Heels have always their feet distorted. The most natural Method of walking seems to be with the *Toes* directly darting forwards, as the *Indians* in *America* walk — As the *Spine*, *Elbow*, and *Bones* of the lower Extremity support weight, they are commonly bent when they are soft from a deficiency of the Ossific Matter, but as all Bones are not soft in equal Degree, there is no one bone so certainly affected in this kind of Constitution, but that it sometimes retains its proper shape.

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shape when almost all the others are distorted. The Bones of the arms are seldom distorted, because they support no weight, but sometimes it happens from their being leaned on, that they become crooked also. We have now finished the Trunk, and upper and lower Extremities, and shall next proceed to describe the last Part, the Head, which we consider as an Extremity.

The Bones of the Head in General

Lecture 22

It has been the general Method in Demonstrating the bones of the Head to consider them separately, but this Dr Hunter thinks is wrong; he says the Head may be compared to an House or Cabinet in which there are several different Apartments, and asks who takes an House to pieces to explain it? He proposes then first to consider the bones as they appear externally in their natural Situation, and afterwards by making use of different sections to shew their appearance internally. The Head is divided into two parts, the Skull, and the Face, and this last is subdivided into three, the Forehead, the upper and the lower jaw. The Cranium is of an obiform figure, but its Axis drops downwards, and backwards, so that if you conceive a line to be drawn horizontally forwards from the lowest part of the Axis, and an other let fall perpendicularly on it from the fore part of the Axis, these two lines with that of the Axis will form a Triangle, in which is contained the bones of the Face. The Cranium is commonly divided into the upper part or Arch, and the lower part or Basis: the most remarkable things to be observed in the Arch are first the suture or ventres, which are five in number, the coronal, Sagittal, Lambdoidal, and the two Squamæ; the coronal suture runs across the Head and terminates on each side near the most projecting part of the Orbit; at it crosses the head it runs backwards. The Sagittal Suture runs from the most projecting part of the Hind Head to join the coronal suture, sometimes it is continued down the forehead where it is called

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called the Frontal. We must next observe the five points in the Skull where it is more prominent than elsewhere, two on the forehead which in some measure give it its shape, one on each Parietal Bone, and one behind on the Occipital bone; these projections on the surface of the Skull have been a long while accounted for by Mr John Hunter, who says that they are the first points where Ossification began, retaining their original form of the Segment of a Circle, while the other part of the bone expands into a larger form from the Ossification *quo tempore quamque versum* till the whole is formed; accordingly we find that they are the central Parts of the Bones; on each side of the Skull laterally there is a semi-circular line, which shows the Attachment of the *Crotaphiti* or Temporal Muscles. These are the external appearances on the Arch of the Skull; we shall next take a View of the Basis externally, having first removed all the Bones of the Face.

The Basis is very uneven; just over the nose on each side of the forehead there is frequently a considerable projection, under which lies the Frontal Sinus, and at the upper part of the Orbit there is a Ridge which continued laterally unites with the Zygomatic Process; a little farther back is the Zygomatic Process beneath whose Root is the Cavity for the Condyle of the lower Jaw, behind the Condyle is the *Meatu* Auditorius, and behind this is a remarkable Process going forwards and downwards, called the Mamillary Process to which many Muscles are attached; behind the Mamillary Process is a Ridge called the transverse Occipital Ridge for the Attachment of the Muscles moving the head backwards. The Basis of the Skull externally, divides itself into three

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three Parts both internally and externally; The first comprehending so much as reaches from the Eyebrow to the back part of the bones of the upper jaw; the second reaches from the termination of the first to the Mamillary Process, and the third is all that lies between the Mamillary Ridge and the Occipital Ridge. The middle Part of the first portion forms the back part of the Nose, the lateral Parts make part of the Orbits, and backwards is a Muscular surface for the Attachment of the Muscles of the lower Jaw. The middle Part of the Basis of the Skull we shall divide into three parts; the middle and the two sides; in the middle lies the Coniform Process of the Os Occipitis; in each of the lateral parts we may observe under the Zygomatic Process an oblong cavity for the Condyle of the lower jaw next the Foramen Auditorium, and behind this is the Styloid Process where the Muscles of the Tongue are attached, behind and without this Process is the Mamillary or Mastoid, at the root of which posteriorly there is a groove where the Digastric Muscle is attached; within this is a Muscular surface for the Attachment of the Pectus Lateralis and near this is the Occipital Condyle which is articulated with the Atlas. In this part are several Foramina, near the oblong cavity for the Condyle of the lower jaw is the Foramen Ovale this which the Nerve of the lower Jaw pass; just behind this is another Foramen for the Carotid Artery; behind this is a large Foramen for the passage of the jugular Vein, and on the inside of this is another for the ninth pair of Nerve just over the Occipital Condyle; behind the Occipital Condyle is another for the Foramen of the seventh part, and just by the Coniform Process

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Process of the Occipital bone is the Foramen-lacerum, which is not an important part serving no particular purpose as we know of, as it is principally filled up with Cartilage; these Foramina are all contained within or formed by the Pars Petrosa of the Temporal Bone; just within the ear then there are Foramina for the great Artery and great Vein of the Head, both of these are attended with large Nerves, the Par Vagus which accompanies the Vein, and the Intercostal which accompanies the Artery, so that if a Bullet be shot in at the Ear, it will destroy all these principal parts, and produce instantaneous Death, supposing it goes directly forward in a line with the other Ear; the third part, as said before reaches from the Mamillary Processes to the Occipital Ridge, it contains nothing material except the great Foramen ^{for} the Spinal Nerves; — Mr John Hunter is of opinion that the Mental Intellests do not so much depend on a proper Mode of Education, as the quantity of Brain which the Skull contains; as a proof of this he says there appears to be a regular Series of gradation in the size and shape of the Skulls from an European to a Dog's; A Negro's Skull is not nearly so capacious as an European's, it is flatter, and the bones of the face are longer; A Monkey's Skull is flatter and less capacious than a Negro's; and a Dog's Skull is much shallower than a Monkey's, and the bones of the face much longer. Mr John Hunter says several Gentlemen from the West Indies have told him, that they have observed the Children of Negroes are very slow in acquiring knowledge in comparison with those of Europeans, tho' they went to the same school, and partook of the same Advantages in common with the Children of Europeans. — There are on the Skull
and

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and Basis externally, some Foramina scattered up and down; on the Parietal Bone near the Sagittal suture there is sometimes a Foramen on one side, and sometimes on both, but these kind of holes being at one time found, and at another not, & hence them to be of no consequence, and behind the Occipital Condyle there frequently is, and frequently is not a considerable Foramen. The Arch internally has nothing very material, it has a number of inequalities made by the convolutions of the Brain, and there are branching Grooves on its Surface made by the Vessels of the Dura Mater, particularly on the parietal bones; at the lower part of the Forehead there is a Ridge for the Attachment of the Falx, and Longitudinal Sinus, which as it runs backwards becomes a Groove for the Inferior Sinus. The Brain above is tolerably uniform, divided into two Hemispheres; below it is irregular with the Cerebellum lying under and behind it. As we did externally, so we divide the Basis of the Skull internally into three divisions; The first from the forehead to the Anterior Elyptoid Processes runs forward, and in the middle the Crista Galli, and on each side the bone is concave answering to the Orbit underneath; and behind this the bone is concave to receive the middle lobes of the Brain comprehended in the second Division, so that these Lobes lie immediately behind the Orbits, and a Ball fired in at the Eye will pass under the Anterior Lobes directly into the middle one; in this middle division is the Sella Turcica formed by the Anterior, and Posterior Elyptoid Processes backwards to the part corresponding to the Occipital Ridge. In the middle on the uniform Process of the Occipital bones is an hollow gently slanting backwards and

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and downwards for the Medulla Oblongata and beginning of the Spinal Marrow just before the great Occipital hole; Behind the Occipital Hole is a ridge running transversely for the Attachment of the Membrane dividing the Cerebrum from the Cerebellum and underneath this are small inequalities made by the latter.

As there is a Sinus or Vein on the superior part of the Skull between the Hemispheres, so there is a Sinus or Vein between the Cerebrum and Cerebellum, which forms the Jugular Vein near the Pars Petrosa. The external mark of Division between the Cerebrum and Cerebellum is the transverse Occipital Ridge.

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Lecture 23

Having described the Skull we shall next describe the Face. The Face is divided into fore head, upper jaw, and Lower jaw; the first division or forehead has already been noticed, is part of the Arch, of the Basis of the Skull; in the middle of the first division is the Root of the Nose, and in the sides are the Orbitae. In the second division are the Nostrils; there are open cavities externally, the end of the Nose being wanting in the Skeleton; below these are the Sockets for the Teeth, and here the breadth of the bones of the face is much contracted. In a side view the cavity for the Passage of the Cratophite Muscle appears, the Cheek bone and Zygomatic Process uniting and forming an Arch over it, called the Jugum: the Use of the Jugum is commonly said to be to confine down the Cratophite muscle, but it is not, it is to allow convenient Attachment to a very strong muscle that pulls the Lower jaw upwards, the Masseter Muscle. It is this Jugum which gives the Breadth of the Face and in consumptive People where great Part of the Flesh is wasted, its form is very distinctly. By the Facies Hippocratica is understood the Skeleton of the Face. If we next take a View from the Mouth the bones appear much contracted and more simple Structure nothing more appears than the bony Roof of the Mouth, and Sockets for the Teeth: at the ends of the upper jaw are two little Processes with an hollow bony surface between them called Foramina Pterygidea, the inner of these Processes has a little bony hook called therefore the Unciform Process around which the circumflexor Palate Muscle plays. Looking ^{from} behind we see the Posterior Nostrils, which communicate with the anterior

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Anterior, and to divide the right from the left nostril there is a Septum. The nostrils run under the Basis of the Skull; the third part or lower jaw runs and backwards widening as it goes for muscular attachment and articulation. The Cavities of the Face as they appear externally, are in the first place the Orbits; the circumference of these is rather oval and the cavities point forwards and outwards to enlarge our Sphere of Vision; the long Axis of the Oval does not correspond with each another, for if the Axis of both were extended they would meet in the Forehead at an right Angle: internally they go over the Maxillary bone; in shape the cavities are funnel-like, and perforated at the bottom, where they are nearly at the same Distance from each other, as they are across the nose; externally there are two Foramina, on the edge of the Orbit, one on the upper edge, which is commonly only a notch, called the Foramen Orbitale Superius or Superciliary hole; thro' it a nerve & an Artery pass to the forehead: the other is called Foramen Orbitale Inferius, it begins under the lower edge, and running backwards opens into the bottom of the Orbit; there is a hole of great consequence to be known just within the Orbit, thro' which the Ductus ad nasum goes to convey the Tears from the Lacrymal Sac into the nostril. At the bottom of the Orbit are three considerable holes, one above towards the nostril call'd Foramen Opticum for the passage of the Optic Nerve leading to the Sella Turcica, and is quite round, whereas the other two are irregular holes or Sits called Foramina Lacera. The Foramen Lacera orbitale superior is more outwards, and lower than the Foramen Opticum and

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and enters the Cavity of the Skull; The Foramen ^{orbitale} Inferius is on the outside of this, and does not lead into the Cavity of the Skull, but runs downwards and backwards between the bones of the Skull, and Upper jaw; so much for the Orbite.

The internal Cavity of the Nose is divided by a Septum made partly by bone and partly by ligament, running from the Root of the Nose at the Basis of the Skull to the roof of the Mouth and is a continuation of the Crista Galli; on each side of the Septum the Air passage is very irregular, made of three bones, the Os Turbinatum Superius, and Inferius whose lower edges are loose and unconnected, in the third is the Cellular substance of the Ethmoid bone. The Use of all these projecting parts is for the Expansion of Schneider's Membrane to make a greater surface for the odorous Effluvia to be applied on in smelling; in the Dog whose smelling is very acute the Membranous Surface is larger than ours, besides the Turbinata, there are many other projecting Lamina in his Nostrils. Besides the Nostrils there are large cavities communicating with the general cavity of the Nose called Frontal, Maxillary, and Sphenoidal Sinuses; the situation of the Frontal Sinus is known by an external rising at the bottom of the forehead, it is formed by the outer, and inner table of the Skull separating; answering to the Diploe, and at its lower part it communicates with the Nose near the great Canthus of the Eye generally by a small Orifice on each side separated by a middle partition, tho' sometimes there is no partition;

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partition; the maxillary sinus in Anterior of Highmore is situated between the Orbit and Sockets of the Teeth; it communicates at its upper part with the cavity of the nose near the same place as the Frontal does, and lies over the Sockets of the grinding Teeth. The Sphenoidal sinus is the smallest of the three, and is situated just under the fore part of the Sella Turcica in the Basis of the Skull, divided into two by a partition in a line with the Septum nasale, and opens into the cavity of the nose anteriorly close under the Basis of the Skull. All of these communicate with the nose by an opening belonging to each, not larger than to admit a knitting needle when their proper coverings are on. The manifest Use of the Skull is to protect the Brain, it is made up of several pieces joined by means of the Sutures. We have said before that generally there are but five Sutures, the Coronal, the Sagittal, the Lambdoidal, and two Temporal, and sometimes the Sagittal is continued down the Forehead, and makes another called the frontal Suture; the reason why this last is so, is this, originally, while the bones are forming there is a Seam dividing the frontal bone into two distinct ossifications, which seam is generally obliterated, but sometimes it remains when the bones are perfected; The Sutures on the outside of the Skull are irregular, on the inside they are pretty regular therefore they are made principally by the outer Table. The Temporal Sutures differ from all the Rest, they are not indented or dovetailed, but overlaying and called squamos. Some authors say there is a middle Seam down the Occipital bone continued from the Sagittal but none is ever found, and seems rather advanced from Theory than from Observation, for the Occipital bone is originally

one

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one Ossification only, beginning in the middle. There are Osse-
Triguetra called also Wormians, these have two sutures surrounding
them; originally they were new Ossifications set up by Nature to
perfect the general Map of the cranium sooner, they are commonly
seen in the Lambdoidal suture but every now and then may be
seen in any others. Hippocrates and since him many others
have warned us not to mistake a suture for a fracture. An
Anatomist will generally distinguish them by knowing the
situation of the sutures, but he may be deceived by the nature of
a large Os Triguetrum. A suture has however always an
appearance very different from a fracture, for a fracture seldom
runs in a straight manner as a suture does, besides when the head
is scalped we can easily remove the Pericranium from any other
part of the Skull except at a suture, and at the insertion of the
Crotaphite Muscles, where it adheres very firmly. In Suppuring
we need not avoid a suture merely, because it is a suture, but because
there are parts that lie under them which we wish to avoid, and at
the suture the rawer piece of bone cannot be easily taken out
because of the firm adhesion of the Dura Mater to it. The Use
of sutures has not yet been satisfactorily accounted for. In a
Fetus they are membranous and allow the bones to overlap one
another in birth, so that the head becomes less and grows more
easily. If the bones be put into their form by force or by pressure
the Child will be much hurt, but if it be done by the pains and
efforts of the Mother, it does not hurt the Child at all. When a
Child is born the Occipital bone is found often thrust under the
Parietal bones, which is called by Nurses an Horseshoe head, and
often the Frontal bone is found thrust under the Parietal bones,
which

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which by them is called a moulded head, these Appearances are apt to be very frightening, and are thought very material, but they are of no consequence, for in a little time the bones come right again. Why the other sutures remain open after the Fontanel is closed, we dont know. The sutures have been supposed to be outlets to phlegm from the Brain, and that when closed too soon, they are the cause of Juvenile Head Ach, by retaining the humours within the cavity of the Skull. In old People they are often obliterated, and sometimes in young; they are also said to be provided for preventing a fracture extending any considerable space on the Skull, as otherwise it might have done, but a fracture often crosses a suture, and if it reaches to a suture it hardly ever stops without crossing it.

The Skull is more or less spongy within, and compact on each side, so that sometimes there is more, sometimes less of the Diploë. The thickness of the Skull is very different in different people, in women it is thinner, and in them sometimes in particular ^{parts} it is hardly thicker than brown paper.

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Lecture 24

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The last part of the Face we have to describe is the lower jaw; the lower jaw is originally two bones or pieces, which are afterwards united at the Chin and perfectly ankylosed in an adult; On the Inside near the Symphysis of the Chin are two cavities in which the Digastric Muscles are inserted, and opposite the Symphysis near its Basis the Genioglossi are attached. On the internal part of the lower jaw at its angle is a muscular surface for the Pterygoid muscles which pull up the jaw; below the semilunar notch made by the Condyle and Coronoid Process externally is a hole which runs slanting thro' the bone, and terminates externally by a hole under the second grinder, being reflected backwards before it terminates; thro' this canal a large Artery, Vein and Nerve pass to the lower Lip; the lower edge of the lower jaw is called its Basis, and is pretty smoothly rounded; backwards it has two Processes, one for muscular attachment called the Coronoid Process to which the Protrahite Muscle is attached very advantageously for action; the other process forms the Condyle for the articulation of the lower jaw with the Skull. The Condyle has its articular end turned forwards, and its inner end thrown back, so that the Axis of both Condyles make an obtuse angle with one another. The motion of the lower jaw is by the Chin going upwards and downwards, so that the mouth when open forms two sides of a Triangle. The center of motion is in the duct of the bone below the Condyle. In opening our mouth the Condyle moves forwards till it is stopped by the eminence before the articular cavity, and sometimes in yawning or otherwise opening the mouth

very

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very wide, it happens that the Condyle slips out of the cavity over the eminence, the jaw is then said to be Dislocated, the Mouth is open and cannot be shut, and the Condyle lies under the Jugum. To reduce this dislocation we must draw the Condyle downwards and backwards, and when disengaged it will slip into the cavity of itself for the most part, or we may push it backwards after disengaging it; it generally goes in with a convulsive motion of the muscles of the jaw and catches the fingers if something is not put into the Mouth to prevent it. another motion which the lower jaw has is the grinding lateral motion, which is made by bringing one of the Condyles forwards, while the other remains fixed, so that the Teeth rub on each other. The Condyle then plays not only in the cavity, but on the eminence also.

We are next to speak of the Foramina of the Skull. The Brain is lodged in the Skull, from which go off nine Pairs of Nerves (old anatomists say ten) But the tenth Pair properly belongs to the Neck proceeding from the Spinal Marrow; the Nerves are reckoned from the back to the forepart of the Skull; thus the most anterior are called the first pair, the next in order the second pair, and so on. For the transmitting of these Nerves there are Foramina, and also others for the Carotid and Vertebral Arteries of the Brain. We shall pass over several small Foramina, which are mentioned in different Authors, as being of little Importance. Just before the Crista Galli is one irregular hole called the Foramen Cecum, which transmits a small Vein that makes the Beginning of the longitudinal sinus; on each side

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side of the Crista Galli are a number of very small Foramina in the Ethmoid bone through which the filaments of the first pair or Olfactory Nerve pass into the nose to be distributed upon Snider's Membrane. The second pair or Optic Nerves pass each of them thro' a round hole on the anterior part of the Sella Turcica, and go to the globe of the Eye. The third and fourth pair and one Branch of the fifth pair with the sixth pair all pass thro' the Foramen Saeuum Orbitale Superius; the third pair are called Motus Oculi, the fourth the Pathetic pair, the branch of the fifth pair and the sixth pair all pass thro' this hole; the fifth pair produces a number for the face, the trunk makes three principal ones, the first (which passes thro' the Foramen lacrimum as was said before) goes to the upper part of the face, the second to the Upper, the third to the lower Jaw, the second branch passes thro' the Foramen Rotundum to the Nose, upper lip &c. the third is called the Inferior Maxillary Nerve, it passes out of the Skull thro' the Foramen Osale down behind the bones of the Face, then goes into the hole near the angle of the lower Jaw internally and runs along the Canal till it comes out forward near the Chin externally; the next in order is a small Foramen for a little Artery of the Dura Mater, that passes thro' the Osphenoides near the Foramen Osale. The next is a large Foramen in the Pars Petrosa of the Temporal Bone for the passage of the Carotid Artery, from the neck it enters upwards and forwards, and when it is got into the cavity of the Skull it climbs on the side of the Sella Turcica up to the optic nerve; with the Carotid Artery passes a twig of the Intercostal Nerve. All these Foramina lie before the Sella Turcica and Ridges made by the Temporal Bones. The next Foramen is for the Seventh pair, or Auditory Nerve, in the posterior part of the Pars Petrosa of the Temporal Bone it divides

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divides into the *Pars Dura*, and *Pars Mollis*; the *Mollis* winds thro' a cavity in the ear, the *Dura* goes down near the *Sylvis Procep.*, and makes the cutaneous nerve of the adjacent parts; the eighth pair or *Par Vagus* goes through a hole common to the Temporal and Occipital bone, where the *Sinus* goes out to form the internal Jugular Vein; the ninth pair or gustatory nerve go thro' the Foramen by the great Occipital Foramen over the Condyles. The Vertebral Nating enters the Skull by the great Foramen occipitale, and thro' a hole on each side of it, the nerves commonly called the Tenth Pair pass thro' this hole also. — Having now done with the description of the Skull and Face, we shall now make some reflections thereon. The word *Diploe* strictly speaking signifies a Doubling, but it is understood to be the spongy part between the Tables of the Skull. — In every skull we may observe that it is wanting in some particular parts, and in no skull it is entirely wanting, so that the common Rule to go on boldly in trepanning till we come to the *Diploe* is of no Service, because we can never be certain of meeting with it. It is surprising how exceeding thin some Skulls are, particularly of women, and more especially about the Temporal Bones. The Trepan may be applied to any Part of the Arch of the Skull, but Surgeons chuse to avoid the middle of the head because of the Ridge and Groove for the *Sinus Longitudinalis*, which cause a very troublesome Hemorrhage if wounded. The frontal *Sinus* should also be avoided, because much pain is caused by the Air getting in and disturbing the Dressing, and besides the bone internally is unequal. The Trepan must not be applied on the lower anterior part of the Parietal bones, neither must it be applied near the Mamillary Proceps of the Temporal bones.

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bones, because of ~~its~~ internal inequalities. A Fracture and Depression of the Skull may be of two kinds, In the first case the Bone may be broken as a green Stick is sometimes broken, that is broke thro' on one side, and only crushed on the other, in the second case it may be broken entirely thro', and in this last case we can seldom raise the bone with the Secutor without making more than One Opening, because the broken piece of Bone generally carries a shell of the internal Table, making the fracture on the inside much larger than on the outside. Every one knows that there is a great Variety in the different shape of Skulls. Sometimes we see there is naturally very great Depressions on the Skull, which might tend to deceive an Incautious Observer therefore we cannot be too careful. The Size of the Skull answers to the Brain except that in Pichetty Runons it is larger. The human part of the creation has more Brain than the Brute, undoubtedly, because the Faculties of sense in a Man are more extensive than in a Brute; Amongst Monsters of the human race nothing is so common as a Fetus without a Brain, and consequently without a Skull higher than the Eyes, while in the Uterus it gives evident signs of being vigorous and lively, that is while it is in a state nearly allied to vegetation, but when born tho' plump and fine it dies immediately with a Gasp, so that the functions of the Brain are not necessary to the more vegetative part in Utero, but are afterwards to the living part. Within the substance of the Brain is naturally a little Moisture, if this is collected and accumulated, it makes a disease called the Hydrocephalus or Watery head various symptoms are the consequence, Fever, Delirium, and often Death itself; if this disease does not come on till the Child is three

or

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at four years old, there is no appearance of it externally, that is the Skull is not enlarged, but the Brain is ^{some} pressed between the fluid and the bone, so as to make parts of it near as thin as paper; If it attacks very young Children, the ventricles are often enlarged, or opened to a surprising degree, and Nature endeavours to fill up those by new ossifications. We can tell when this Disease is present in the Fetus by feeling in Utero a kind of bladder, and if the Water is let out the Patient immediately dies, because the sides of the Spine cannot collapse; if the Child lives it is commonly more or less stupid from the Congestion of the Brain.

A remarkable Instance of this kind was a girl, who lived till she was almost ^{thirteen} years of age, her head was of a surprising size, and she never had the least use of any of her senses, if we except feeling which she seemed to enjoy only in a very low degree.

On the Os Frontis over the external Angle of the Orbit is a little hollow, in which the Lacrymal gland is lodged, and over the internal Angle is a Pit to which the Trochlea is fixed. The Frontal Sinuses are not found in young creatures, but as we grow up they are gradually formed, and at 25 years of age they are quite formed; The frontal bone makes a part of the Ethmoid Cells. Writers on the Diseases of Breasts say, that there are sometimes Abscesses in the frontal Sinuses which cause very troublesome Symptoms. But how can they get there, for we never find any Smell in the frontal Sinuses of dead People, who used to take it while alive. The Fontanel is a want of bone at the corner of the two pieces of frontal bone principally, for the Parietal are very little concerned in it; By this ^{aperture} we can tell the exact ~~condition~~ situation.

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situation of the Childs head in labour, by encircling the bone and the four sutures round it. The Parietal bone is most frequently fractured, and may easily be repaired, but at the lower and anterior angle there is a hole for the admission of an Artery; which if divided may prove troublesome. A Child when nearly born has that part of the head which presents a little thickened by the stagnation of the juices from pressure. Very commonly there arises a hard tumor formed by the gradual coagulation of the blood from a small Artery ruptured in the time of Labor; there is a ful. on the edge as if the Skull was wanting, and the Brain pushing thro', and accordingly was supposed by the Ancients to be a protrusion of the Brain. There is little occasion to do any thing, for in time it will go away of itself, perhaps it may be two or three months first, Mr Gooch recommends opening them, but it is unnecessary. The Bones of the Orbit are so thin, that a pointed Instrument thrust into the Eye might easily pierce them, and do great mischief to the Brain. The Occipital bone at its posterior part has a transverse edge for muscular Attachment, internally it has two pair of cavities, the upper for lodging the Posterior Fles cerebri, the lower for the Cerebellum. This Bone is generally the thickest and hardest of any of the bones of the head, and it is said that it makes a small Arch convex. Fractures; opposite to the Cerebellum it is very thin being a part of the Basis, and little liable to injury. The Part externally opposite to the division between the Cerebrum and Cerebellum is a little above the transverse Ridge. The upper part of the Ethmoid

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The Ethmoid Bone is made of Cells that communicate with the general cavity of the Nose, and from these Cells hangs the Os Turbinatum Superius; the thinness of this bone shews us that an Instrument run thro' the Orbit upwards and backwards will easily get into the Brain, and so may a Probe run up from the Nostril & slender Instrument run up the Nose has thus perhaps been the Death of many Children, and a person might be murdered so without the cause of Death being found out. A French Soldier had a Musket ball lodged within his Skull for a number of years without the least Inconvenience, and upon opening the Skull after he died it was found lodged exactly in the Sella Turcica. Just behind and as it were between the two Middle Incisor Teeth of the upper Jaw is a hole, which as it runs up divides into two, one corresponding to each side of the Septum Nasale, the Use of it not known, for in general it appears entirely blocked up with membrane.

The Anterior or Maxillary Sinus communicates with the Nose by a very small hole, and is often the Seat of Inflammation and Ulceration the Matter makes the Bone carious and often seats thro' the Cheek, and makes a Tooth or two carious, so that if there is great pain under the Cheek attended with Inflammation, Surgeons should always examine into the state of the grinding Teeth, for a bad Tooth may be the cause, and sometimes it is necessary to draw one tho' it be sound, and by running a small Drill up the Socket they perforate into the Antrum with a View to give discharge to the Matter, and if there

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there happens to be no matter, it is of no consequence.

The *Sacculus Lachrymalis* lies in a cavity of the Os Unguis just with a Ridge on its surface, and from this is continued down the Passage for the Ductus ad nasum. In the *Trichela Lachrymalis* if an Incision is made within the Ridge down to the bone, the Sac will certainly be opened; to perforate this bone for the same Disease we must direct the perforation downwards and inwards, for if we direct it immediately against the Nose we shall meet with the hard Maxillary Bone instead of the thin little Os Unguis. The Ductus ad nasum opens into the Nostril between the Os Turbinatum Superius and the Maxillary Bone, but the Artificial Opening that we make is between the Os Turbinatum Superius, and Maxillary Bone.

The Greek Anatomists imagined the Brain to be a watery part, that it purged itself upwards by the nostrils, and downwards by an anterior Passage thro' the Nose, and a posterior Passage into the Throat; and Arctaeus supposed that the great Discharge from the Nose and Throat in a Catarrh was a purging of the Brain thro' the holes in the cribriform bone; but we know of no Passage from the cavity of the Skull into the Nose or Throat. The Maxillary, Sphenoidal, and Frontal Sinuses open into the Nostril under the Os Turbinatum Superius; there are several Opinions concerning their Use, some say they are to make a more complex and extensive cavity.

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cavity for smelling. Dr Nicholls thinks they do not serve this Purpose, but that they serve to strengthen the sound of our Voice, as the cavity of a Fiddle strengthens the sound of that Instrument, and therefore when the Nostril is shut up by Mucus, as in a Cold, the sound is not so strong; This is a very probable conjecture. Another Use they serve perhaps is that when the Breath is still in sleep, it would become dry were it not supplied with Mucus from these cavities.

Having now spoken of the whole of the Skull, namely of the Face, and upper, and lower Jaw, there remains still an Appendix to the latter to be taken Notice of, which is properly to be considered as an external part, namely the Teeth.

The Teeth

Lecture 25th

As the Teeth differ from one another, we shall describe a Tooth in a general way, and then mention the peculiarities of the several Classes of Teeth. The Number of them is different in different Ages, because they are shed and varied thereby; Generally, there are sixteen in each jaw, but sometimes the two or four farthest are wanting of the thirty two — as every Tooth has a part marked out of the gum, and a part concealed within it, and as some Teeth have one, some two, three or four Furrows, on these accounts we shall divide a Tooth into two parts, the naked part called the Body of the Tooth, the concealed part called the Tang, and the line between these we shall sometimes call the neck of the Tooth, the very upper part of the body we shall call the Basis. The Structure of a Tooth is best understood by viewing it's Centre; if cut thro' longitudinally, we find a cavity, within corresponding with the cavity in the body of the Tooth. We see then that in every Tooth there is a cavity running from one extremity almost to the other; accordingly Anatomists have described an internal Pivostearr lining this cavity, and they said that this membrane was the Seat of the Tooth Ach. We see however no membrane answering to their Description, but in the cavity, in young Subjects especially, we see a tender pulpy substance, which fills it entirely, and is very vascular as appears by injection, and from the similarity of this substance we may suppose it has nerves, tho' we cannot trace them. The whole Tang and inner part of the body is made of a bony substance, the outside of the body has a hard Cortical substance, or Enamel covering it, which

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which is of a very different nature, and does not cover any part of the Tongue. The whole substance of the Tongue is bony, and is the most complicated bony substance in the Body; tho' it has the cavity before mentioned, yet it has none for Inanices which all other bones have. This bony substance we cannot inject as we can other bony parts, which makes Mr John Hunter be of Opinion, that it is different from the other bones, but it has two of the characteristics of Bone, in the first place by steeping it in an Acid, it is reduced to a flexible state, and secondly, it is coloured by madder in growing animals that have been fed on it, so that we may conclude it does not differ materially from Bone. The hard, flinty, cortical part of the Teeth the Enamel is still harder, so hard as scarcely to be touched by the finest tempered Saw; if we break it, we always find it breaks into Striae like Antimony or sublimate Mercury; it is evidently made up of Threads laid parallel to an other, as Radii from the Cone of the Tooth. It takes a very smooth Polish like Ivory, and then its thready appearance is lost. The Enamel as far as we know is not in any loose vascular, it is an inorganic concrete situated out of the Road of Circulation, and going no farther than the Neck of the Tooth. If we steep a Tooth in an Acid, the earthy Matter of the bony substance will be dissolved, and the Vascular, and combining part remaining, the substance will become flexible but the Matter of the Enamel is all dissolved, and no Vascular or other part being left it crumbles into Powder; and what seems farther to prove that it is not Vascular, that madder don't colour it in a growing animal; Anatomists say there is a Periosteum covering

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covering the Gums as far up as the neck of the Tooth within the Gum, but whether it is or is not is not certain, tho' there is now and then a vascular Membrane to be seen on them, which may be called the External Pseudo-stern. The Gums in a healthy State are united to the neck of the Teeth, and form a most beautiful Vascular Fringe next the Pseudo-stern, which in most people separate from the Teeth as they advance in Life, and leave them bare and exposed. The Teeth are commonly divided into three general Classes, for instance supposing there are 8 Teeth on each side of the Jaw, the two most forward Ones are called Incisors, the next one called the Canine or Eye Tooth, and the remaining Five were called Grinders or Molars, but Mr John Hunter not thinking this Division sufficiently expressive, divides them into four Classes, the two foremost he calls Incisors, the next one he does not chuse to call Canine, because in Dogs, and other Carnivorous Animals it is a Tooth, very different from what it is in the Human Jaw, he calls it Cuspидatus, or the Pointed Tooth, the next two Bicuspidates, the three others he calls Grinders. This last Arrangement we shall follow; The Character of the Incisors is that they are concave forwards, and concave backwards, having a sharp edge upwards, and one single Tusk always, the Incisors of the lower Jaw are commonly smaller than those of the upper Jaw, when the Mouth is shut, the upper Incisors are more prominent, than the lower, hence they wear each other away like the sides of a pair of Scissors, sometimes indeed their edges meet exactly, and then they wear down uniformly. The Cuspидates are very long, concave internally and externally, and the two lateral surfaces next the other Teeth slanting upwards form a Point on the Basis, thence it's

name

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name, and it has a very long Tang, which sometimes running nearly as far up as the eye in the upper jaw occasion'd its being call'd the Eye Tooth. The Piscivores are double pointed on the Basis, as the name expresses, they are the smallest Teeth in the Head, one point is on the external part of the Basis, the other on the Internal, and on the inside there is a groove dividing as it were the Tang into two, the cavity within corresponds with each knob or point on the Basis. The Molars or Grinders is a broad thick Tooth, its Basis is of an irregular form having generally four knobs or points, two external, and two internal, and whether there be two, three or more Tangs, there is a groove on each of them, but only one cavity in each Tang, and the last of the Grinders, which on account of its late production is call'd Dens Sapientiae, has commonly but one Tang, and that being so short is the reason why it usually falls out the first of them. The Tangs of the upper and lower Teeth next perpendicularly approach to one another. Having now consider'd the Teeth as they are in a grown Animal, we shall next speak of their Use, Growth, and Diseases. The Use of the Teeth is evident, the preteeth are for cutting and dividing our food, the back Teeth grind and mash it to pieces, as the uses of particular Teeth are very different in different Animals. Rationalis it commonly claps them from their Teeth as being their most distinguishing Mark. The Use of the Enamel. There were commonly two uses ascrib'd to the Enamel, In the first place it was said, that the bone is of that Nature when exposed to Air, that it corrupts, and as the Teeth could not be conveniently cover'd with a Pious tunic because it would have been sub'd to peices, therefore it was said that the bone is cover'd with an

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an Enamel crust; and secondly, it was said that the Enamel being much harder than the bony substance prevents the Teeth from being worn away so soon as they otherwise would have been without it.

Mr John Hunter thinks that both these uses are accidental, for most old people have the Root of their Teeth left bare by the Gums, and yet we find that they do not become carious, and it is observable that the Caries generally first attacks the Body of the Tooth, where the Enamel covers it. It was said by Mr John Hunter to be given with this View; that in the first place as it does not wear away so soon as the bony part, it preserves the Gums longer for mastication, and also that it is necessary the Teeth should have unequal surfaces, that for this purpose the Enamel is always disposed in Vines or Lines on the Body of the Tooth that they may wear unequally, of course be longer serviceable. A comparison or two will illustrate this matter. The Surfaces of Mill-stones are made rough, that the Corn may be ground on their inequalities; when by long use the Inequalities are rubbed off, the Stones are rendered useless until they have their surfaces again made rough, or as we may sometimes see in Old Fur shoes which have been worn by the feet, if there are on their surfaces any knots, these knots, like the Enamel being of a harder nature than the body of the shoe do not wear so fast, hence the surface is rendered unequal; it is just so with the Teeth. In the Teeth of Elephants the Enamel is disposed in Striae tho' the whole substance of the Tooth, but in those large Teeth which are dug up on the Banks of the Ohio, the Enamel formed the external part as in the Human Teeth, which makes it highly probable that the Creature they belong to were of the

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the Carnivorous kind, and if we may form a judgement of them from their Teeth, they must have been greatly superior in bulk to the Elephant, hence it is likely, that the Animal might have been a great Destroyer of the Human Race, and therefore might have been wholly extirpated by the natives as the Wolves were in England. As to the formation of the Teeth, the following things are to be observed in the Jaw of a little Child, there are Sockets for each of the young Teeth which are filled with a kind of vascular pulp; the Basis and Enamel of the Tooth are first formed, afterwards the Tang shoots and lengthens as it pushes on the body of the Tooth thro' the Gum, the Extremity of the Tang being the last formed; first the Basis is formed, then the body, and last of all the Tang. In a Child, the full number of the first compleat set is Twenty, which are all shed and succeeded by a second set. The common Idea of the Shedding of Teeth was, that the Germen of another Tooth lay originally in the Socket under the first which Germen by encreasing into a Tooth pushed the first out, and supplied its place; but the rudiments of the second set are found ever unvounded by born, and must work their way thro' Bone before they can appear without the Gum. It has been a question, whether the second set push the first out, or not? They are not pushed out, but fall by a very singular Process. The first set of Teeth have very long Tangs, and as the second set grows up, these Tangs moulder away, and the Teeth fall out at last without any Tang at all. Sometimes a Child is born with a Tooth or two without the Gum, but as they are little more than the body of the Tooth, they soon fall out, generally in a few weeks, they have not the Apparatus for keeping them in. The common Time of Children's cutting their Teeth is about the seventh or eighth month. A Child has its first set of Teeth compleat when it

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it is about two years, and an half, or three years old, and then begins to drop about the 6th year. In the Elephant this process of shedding the Teeth is much the same. It is not an obvious thing why we shed our Teeth, as we lose the first & set very soon, and attain the second a great length of time. When a Tooth has been drawn, or dropped from the Socket, it is always lost. One general law of nature prevails here, that is if any thing is useless it is taken up and carried away. This is proved to be the case from the following Fact; if we examine the lower jaw of a grown Person whose Teeth are firm, we shall find that the hole where the nerve enters on the fore part is below the middle of the jaw, but in those that have lost their Teeth some time before their Death, this hole is much above the middle of the jaw because the Socket is carried away. By attending to this circumstance we shall be able to explain several Anatomical observations about the Face of Old People, for instance the short distance between their nose and Chin, the Chin approaching the nose which makes its projection greater; this the vulgar call nose and Chin. If we apply this doctrine to the soft parts of the Face there will appear to be too great a quantity of Lips, because they are now pressed into a smaller compass. If we look into the Mouth the Tongue appears too big, and in Fact it is so, because the cavity of the Mouth is made less. We come next to speak of some of the Diseases of the Teeth, the most common is a Disease simply requiring the Teeth to be kept clear for its cure, In young people the Juices are not so much disposed to foul them, but in old people there is a disposition in them to form a crust or Tartar on the Teeth, which is a tender friable substance of a blackish colour, and of a spongy nature; from its spongy quality, I collect the

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the Juices that grow putrid, and after infuse the Breath to a great degree, this may be removed by Dentifrices, and brushing it off, rubbing the Teeth with a dry cloth is a very ready method of removing it when we can get at it. Acids readily dissolve it but they always dissolve some of the Enamel, and substance of the Tooth also, which makes their frequent use hurtful. Scaling the Teeth with a proper Instrument will take it off very well, and when judiciously managed, it is impossible it should do any harm. I mention some remarkable Instances of the prejudice this Tartar is of to the Teeth. One in particular was the case of a young Man, who came from the Country with an Intention of having all his Teeth drawn on Account of Ulcerated Gums, and Breath so fetid that no one could stay near him. The Teeth were quite black, and covered with Tartar, but by breaking a piece of the Tartarous crust off, the D^r saw a fine white sound Tooth underneath, and he advised him to have them scaled, in a fortnight after, he returned to the D^r with great Happiness, for his breath was perfectly sweet, and his Teeth one of the finest Sets ever seen. Another Disease of the Teeth is when they become rotten, as if it were from some Animal eating them away, it has just the wormeaten appearance, but whether it really is worm or not, is not certain. Breaking the Tooth is not always the occasion of its becoming rotten, it must depend upon something else. At first there is a little black spot on the surface which increases and crumbles away into a cavity bigger and bigger. Nothing stops the decay.

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decay, it is therefore best to have the Tooth out soon, but in the end it becomes very troublesome and painful with so short a stump as to render the drawing exceedingly difficult and even of late years a method has been invented of transplanting Teeth out of one head into another; this appears to answer very well, particularly in those which have a single Tang, but whether they continue firm as long as the native Teeth is not yet determined by a sufficient number of years, it being but a lately introduced practice. Artificial Teeth too are very serviceable, especially in the fore part of the mouth for Speech.

The Diseases of Bones

Lecture 26th.

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In the first place of the softness of Bones. This is of two kinds, one proceeding from a want of bony matter, which has already been explained, the other of a more extraordinary nature, We shall just make some Reflections on the heads of Ricketsy children. The head of a Ricketsy child is different in figure, and size from a well-perfected head, it is large, the Sphenoidal bones are very prominent in the middle, and the upper part of the head flat, the Fontanel is open tho' the child be considerably advanced in life, the bones on the side of the head are thick and spongy. This is a Ricketsy softness.

The second kind of softness is much more extraordinary, it sometimes happens to grown persons, and without any evident cause. The Bones become softer and softer till at last they are unable to support the weight of the body, and are reduced to a kind of fleshy substance.

This kind has never been accounted for. Doct Hunter calls it a softness from Idiopathy, that is from something in the Constitution, we are not acquainted with; Mr Cooper of Norwich has published a case of such a softness of this kind, that with a knife he easily divided the bone of the lower extremity longitudinally, beginning at the Toe, and carrying the Blade thro' the Metatarsal Bone, Tarsus, Tibia, Patella, and os Femoris.

A case of this kind of softness was to be seen at Paris of a woman, whose Ribs and Limbs were divided in all manner of directions. The Reason why the bones, after having been consolidated in their substance, do become soft is what we cannot account

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account for the wasting of Bones, The Anima or ruling Principle is possessed of a Power, by which it can take up parts of bones by absorbent Vessels, and carry them out of the constitution, as we have already observed in the Lecture on the Jaw bone; but can the bones fall away or waste in bulk like the soft parts, which, soon being pleurisy and fleshy sometimes shrink up to nothing but a shroud?

Mr Cheselden says they may, but the case which he has given does not prove it, for it is most probable the bones were never bigger.

A case similar to Mr Cheselden's was communicated to me by Mr Toun late of St. Thomas's Hospital. A Poor Woman that was almost starved to Death by hunger and cold in the streets was

brought to the Hospital and died there, the bones of one Leg and Thigh were smaller than those of the other, and what seems strongly to contradict Mr Cheselden's Opinion of wasting being the cause is,

that there was an Ankylosis of the Joint of the Hip, which probably had prevented the bones from coming to their full growth, by making the Joint motionless at its upper part; it does not appear that the bones ever waste after having been once firm, and yet remain sound.

One of the most common accidents or Diseases of Bones are Fractures.

A Broken bone if kept still and the body be healthy unites and becomes firm by means of a Callus: a Callus was formerly supposed to be an

inorganic concrete like Paris Plaster, and it was said that if a

Callus was broken it would not throw out any Ligament to reconnect it, and therefore that a Callus was always thicker and stronger than

any other part to prevent a possibility of its being broken.

The Callus strictly speaking is bone, for it is organic, and has

all

all the properties of a boney substance, it exhibits the same Phenomena as bones do when steeped in acid, it is coloured by Matter as Bones are, by injection we can fill its vessels, and when broken it will furnish again and again — How is this Callus produced? M^r Du Hamel says, that the Original bone itself is made of layers of Periosteum like the layers of wood from the bark of a Tree, as was said before in speaking of the formation of bones, that the bone is surrounded with these layers, and that when a bone is broken these are made ragged, inflame, thicken and fill up all the interstices and at last become bone thus uniting the fractured ends, but it appears plainly not to be so — M^r John Hunter broke the bones of Chickens, and opened them after one, two, or three days, and so on till many days, & had elapsed since the fracture was done, the result of these experiments the Days were as follows; after the first day there was a glary,ropy, bloody fluid in the cavity between the ends of the fractured bone; after two days, it was gelatinous and free from Blood, and as more days elapsed it appeared firmer, and by and by the fluid was seen to be vascularly injecting the bone, and the vessels were seen coming from the sides of the bone and running from one end to the other. A Papist of Haller is of this Opinion — he says that Callus is at first a glary bloody fluid, next a jelly next a Gristle, and that in the Gristle Ossification begins to shoot, the gristle serving as a bed for the bone to shoot in, so that the ends of a broken bone pour forth a fluid, which undergoes the change just mentioned. When Bones are not well set, the cavity between the broken ends is large, but the whole cavity being filled with this fluid, the ends are as firmly united by means —

Means of the Callus when far asunder as when very near together; If the fractured ends should lacerate the neighbouring soft Parts, so as to make cavities in them, the fluid will run into them, and the bone will be united by an irregular Mass especially in a part where no Bandage can be applied, as in a Fracture of the Os Femoris near it's head. Those bones which are well set have less Callous than those which are badly set particularly where the Fracture was surrounded by Bandage. From hence we see how Anchylosis is formed & caused by a Fracture communicating with the cavity of the joint, the Callus flows into it, and forms irregular Masses, which hinder Motion, so that moderate Bandage is of use to confine the Callus within bounds, and prevent it's flowing into the Laceration; when a Rib is broken, we apply a bandage to moderate it's Motion in Respiration, and the Action of the Lungs while the Callus is soft & smoothes it, and keep it within bounds but as there is nothing to keep it within bounds upwards and downwards the Callus oftentimes cements two Ribs together we should take care therefore to examine the Part before we perform the Operation Paracentesis, if there was has been a fractured Rib. When the two bones of the Leg are broken they unite not only by their own proper ends, but the Callus flows from the Tibia to the Fibula, and vice versa when the Laceration has opened a way for it; so that after a fracture of the two bones are often united together; if this happens between the

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The Ulna and Radius will hinder promotion and separation - sometimes there is a peculiarity in the constitution, so that no Callus is formed, and the broken bones continue disunited. The only one constitution that we know of which occasions this is a very high degree of Scurvy as was said to be the case in Anson's Voyage, and it has been said that a consolidated Callus will be dissolved again, and the ends of the bone disunited if any one be affected with a high degree of Scurvy afterwards, but it cannot be liable to any disorders, but such as the bone themselves are liable to, indeed from its being more spongy it may perhaps be first attacked with the disease, when there is no scorbutic Affection this Want of Callus is owing to different circumstances not so clearly understood. It has been said that in this case the two ends have no disposition to throw out Callus, but they certainly have. In DuRoi's Posthumous Works mention is made of a Monk, whose Ulna and Radius were fractured and never united again, the Arm was examined a considerable length after when he was dead, and it was found that tho' the ends of the Ulna, nor the ends of the Radius were united, yet each end of the bone was united with the Cartilaginous end of the other in a transverse Manner. Mr White of Manchester had a Case somewhat similar to this under his care, the ends of the fractured bone produced no Callus for sometime, he laid open the part and saw'd off a piece from each of the broken ends, and then they united with Callus; he found it was occasioned by a piece of skin lying between the two ends of the bone, and thus by performing the office of a Valve, prevented the fluid from uniting.

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winning out to form the callus. If a Fracture of the Arm, Thigh or Leg should continue loose for six Weeks it will be best to throw off all bandage, and give the greatest Freedom to the circulation thro' the Limb, for by this means probably it may recover, and it is very likely, that our bandage is often made too tight and is hurtfull. It is really wonderful that we daily observe in simple fractures, tho' there is often great laceration and extravasation of blood internally, yet if the skin is but whole, they generally heal very kindly, On the other hand if the fracture is a compound One, for instance if a Splinter of bone should pierce the skin, there is commonly great Inflammation, & severe in short there is no end to the mischief. Mr John Hunter accounts for this by supposing there are two kinds of Inflammation, a suppurative, and an adhesive One and that in simple fractures, the suppurative inflammation very seldom comes, but only the adhesive, If this is the case we should always treat a compound Fracture as much like a simple One as possible, and in slight cases we should not probe or dilate the wound, but keep the Limb still and quiet. It seems very likely, that exposure of the parts to air conduces towards the mischief.

Mr Pitt broke his Leg in mounting his Horse with his Boot on the bone pierced the skin, and it had the appearance of a very bad compound fracture, notwithstanding which it did well very soon, this is accounted for by supposing that at the time the bone pierced the skin, the flexor was twisted, so that when it returned to its natural form it closed over the Orifice and excluded the Air. Commonly the inferior part of the Thigh bone when fractured is behind the upper part, when the

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Fibula only is broken, it is of no consequence, The Tibia keeps it from mending much, indeed it hardly wants binding up; when the Radius and Ulna are broken, sometimes the Callus shoots transversely, and their pronation and supination cannot be performed. The Tibia commonly breaks below its middle, that being its weakest part, and the Fibula breaks oftenest a little below its upper extremity where it is weakest, but it is of very little consequence in this Part. When the Patella is broken transversely, and the pieces much separated, the use of the limb is in a great measure lost, it is better to unite them if possible. Sometimes after the fracture of a Patella a ligamentous substance adheres to the bones of the joint coming to them, and prevents their motion. A Lady who had had her Patella broken, stumbled against a Carpet and found something gave way in the joint, she supposed the Patella was again broken, but was agreeably surprised to find she had gained the Use of her Knee, which, ever since the fracture had been almost lost; this was occasioned by the giving way of this ligamentous substance formed from the Patella and continued to the end of the Femur. A loose body is sometimes found to catch in the joint of the knee, and makes it stiff with great pain, then it will slip away again, and the motion of the joint bear compleat before. Dr. Hunter thinks this is caused by the angulus of the Bone in the joints shooting out & excrescences, which breaking off occasion this complaint; the same thing may happen in any of the joints, when we cant catch hold of this substance, we should cut it out at the upper part of the Capsular Ligament. We come next to speak

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speak of Exfoliation. We are to consider Bone as a living part which has a disposition to throw off a Part of it that is become dead, and to renew it. We have said that the fracture of the inner table of the Skull commonly exceeds that of the outer table, and makes the Evacuation of the Superfluous difficult or not to be accomplished with one opening only. Sometimes a Ventricle is opened by Violence, frequently when a fracture craves it, which must be considered as a fracture and treated as such, when there is a fracture near a Ventricle. The bone must be trepanned on both sides of it because of the duplication of the Dura Mater to give vent to any Matter or extravasated Fluid, and if the violent Symptoms continue, we should perforate again and again. What has already been done must not make us neglect to discover if possible the very ends of the fracture. We must not trust to trepanning one part of a Bone, but do it in many if the symptoms require further Relief. And we should always contrive to place the Trepan on the most depending part. If after scalping and trepanning the Patient lives what follows? It is the Nature of Bone to become dead to a certain extent, but its substance remains unchanged while the edges of the living bone inflame, and endeavour to bring about exfoliation by casting off all the fibres round round the dead Part, so that after trepanning the exfoliated piece of bone comes away like a Ring. This Process in the bones appears to be very similar to that by which the fleshy parts of the body are renewed.

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removed; Tendons and other parts often slough in their whole extent, but in bones the dead parts always appear the same. Hot Irons and Caustics applied to the living bone will make it dead, and then Nature will bring inflammation and suppuration, by which means the dead parts are separated from the living; Exfoliation is said to be of two kinds, sensible and insensible; when a piece is exfoliated large enough to be taken off, it is called sensible Exfoliation; after Exfoliation has taken place the edges of the living bone shoot out new fibres, which supply the place of the old entirely, when the Exfoliation is not very large and the patient young; but in old Subjects where there is great loss of bone, part of the cavity is afterwards only covered with a membrane; when a bone inflames to throw off a dead part it is altered in its appearance, it has a number of little Lumpy like Papillæ on its surface, but the dead part remains unchanged. The Caries of a bone is not a superficial disease, it generally affects the part of the bone quite thro' from one side to the other; Sometimes the bone is affected most in the middle, and a piece is separated from the rest and is loose within. Dr Hunter shew'd a case where a carious piece of the Tibia was separated internally, and remain'd loose in the bone. A Bone that becomes dead immediately has not its Texture altered, but in some cases the texture of the bone is soon altered thro' and thro', especially from Fever.

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Fever, and remains alive till it crumbles away; so that partial Exfoliation can be of little service, and burning a carious piece of bone does good no farther than by deadening the piece and thus procuring a large Exfoliation in less time but it cannot remove the disease. A Woman subject to Fits in One of them fell into the fire, and lay there long enough to burn the Integuments of the Peripital, the bone was deadened to a great Length, the piece exfoliated, and was as large as an ordinary Sancer. She got well, and never had another Fit, the piece exfoliated was unaltered (the fire had not burnt, only deadned it) and of the usual colour.

The Abdominal Muscles

Lecture 27th

There are two Methods of treating the Muscles, the first is to shew a compleat set of them at one time, as those of the head, those serving for Respiration &c. the second is to shew them in their natural order as they are placed in the body, both these Methods have their Advantages and Disadvantages, but we shall chiefly follow the last Method, as we shall then see the parts in their most natural state. The Muscles of the Abdomen are five pair, the Obliqui Externi, the Obliqui Interni, the Transversales, the Recti, and the Pyramidales; these together with the Integuments and Peritoneum, form the Parietes of the Abdomen. laterally they are fleshy, in the middle they form a broad Tendon or Aponeurosis, all below a line drawn across from from the anterior point of the Spine of one Ilion to the other is Tendinous. All the way down from the Xiphoid Cartilage to the Pubis is a whiteness called Linea Alba, having the Navel on its middle part; The whiteness on the outside of each Rectus Musclic is called Linea Semilunaris, and from the outer edge of the Rectus or Linea Semilunaris to the Linea alba are several cross whitenesses called Linea Transversae, common only three on each side. The Obliqui Externi, so called from their Situation are very large Muscles of different lengths in different parts of them, they cover part of the Chest itself, they are attached to the seven inferior Ribs by slips or digitations between those of the Latissimus Dorsi and Serratus Major Anticus. The being very nice about this Attachment is of little Use.

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we, because there is variety in different subjects, their fibres run downwards and forwards to the spine of the Ilium, and the Tendinous fibres run on thro' the Groin to the Pubis; they act as straight Muscles by drawing the Chest towards the Pelvis, or the Pelvis towards the Chest, when one acts alone, it twists the body to one side, they act also as Respiratory Muscles by drawing the Ribs downwards, they act likewise as hollow Muscles by flattening the belly, and compressing the Viscera, they help to expel the Urine and Faeces at the same time they press the Viscera against the Diaphragm and so act on the Stergo

Pubis Ligament is formed by the Aponeurosis of the Abdominal Muscles being stretched on the hollow of the Groin between the anterior edge of the spine of the Ilium, and the Os Pubis under this Ligament the Intestine passes out of the Abdomen, in a Femoral Hernia. The Testicle is supported by the Spermatic Cord, that passes thro' the Tendon of the External Oblique Muscle down to the scrotum close by the lateral edge of the superior projecting part of the Os Pubis. The Passage in the Tendon is called the Ring to which it is every where attached. The slit in the Tendon would be very large were it not for cross bands uniting the fibres together. The Oblique Internus runs downwards and backwards and is exactly of the size of the Abdominal space without bone, for it is attached to the spine of the Os Ilium, and to the last Rib and margin of the Chest, and by uniting with the common Aponeurosis it is converted into the Linea Alba, at its posterior part

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part it is very short from the spine of the Sternum to the Margin of the Thorax; its action is either as a straight or hollow muscle. The Spermatic Cord does not pass thro' this muscle, as some rather assert but immediately under its lowermost fibres, as it does also under the fibres of the next muscle the Transversalis. The Tendon of the Obliquus internus as it runs towards the Linea Alba splits into two Laminae, one of these is blended with the Tendon of the External Obliquus, and passes before the Pectus into the Linea Alba, the other Lamina enters the Linea Alba by passing behind the Pectus, and is blended with the Tendon of the Transversalis, which passes entirely behind the Pectus, so that the Pectus is inclosed in a Tendonous Sheath, and to this Sheath it is loosely united by Threads of cellular Membrane, which are easily torn thro' with the fingers, but at the fore part of this muscle the Union is much stronger between it and the Sheath and cannot there be separated as elsewhere. The Transversalis arises from the Margin of the Chest a little on its inside and forms the Sacra of the Loins, it is attached to the spine of the Sternum below, and forms a Tendon which gets to the Linea Alba by means of the common Aponeurosis. The action of this muscle is to gird the Abdomen and depress the Viscera for Expulsion of the Faeces &c. The Pectus is divided by the Linea Transversalis into many portions of flesh with indentations between them. It is narrower below where it is attached to the lower side of the Os Pubis than it is above where it is attached to the upper and fore part of the Margin of the Chest on the side of the Sternum Cartilage

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Cartilagen. It acts as a hollow and straight muscle. The different fleshy fibres of the Pectus seem to be thus formed, to draw the Abdominal Muscles up or down so as by their action to compress some particular part of the Abdominal Contents, and shift them a little; these seem probable from the indentations being firmly united to the anterior part of the chest. Dr. Nichol's opinion concerning the use of the Pecti was that they together with the Pyramidales draw down the Navel so as to relax the Ligament coming from thence to the bladder, and thereby enable us to expel our Urine. The Pyramidales are sometimes wanting, and therefore their Office is not so material but that it may be supplied by some other Muscles, or by the Abdominal Muscles in general. There five pair of Muscles have on their inside the Peritoneum, which is very smooth towards the Abdomen and connected with the Muscles by cellular Membrane. This Membrane is reflected over the whole Abdominal Contents and forms their external covering; so that water or air never touches nothing but this Membrane, and cannot get out of the cavity of the Abdomen. The Abdominal Contents then may be said to lie behind it, and so do the great Blood Vessels & Spermatia Vessels.

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Lecture 28th

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We shall consider them in the Order of the secretion of the semen and its Expulsion, and as they appear in the adult. The Testicles take their Vessels from the great Vessels as high up as the Loins, the Vena Cava lying on the left side of the Aorta. The Aorta sends off two little Arteries from its fore part, one on each side, a little below the Emulgents called Spermatic, that of the right side comes from the fore part of the Cava, and turns with the right spermatic Artery; the left spermatic Vein comes from the left Emulgent Vein, and goes down with the left spermatic Artery; On each side the Artery and Vein tend towards the Urethra, making a direct course, but a little about to avoid being hurt by the Motion of the Intestines; they are connected to the fixed parts by the Cellular Membrane and lie behind the Peritonaeum. There is great Variety in the manner in which they arise from the large Vessels, now and then from the Trunk, and now and then from the Emulgents, that in general as before described. It has been said, that the spermatic Artery is smallest at its Origin, but this is a Mistake. Rustachius says that there are communicating Canals between the spermatic Artery and Vein, but injections prove this to be an Error. Students, from not reflecting that these Vessels pass behind the Peritonaeum are apt to imagine, that there must be a hole in the Peritonaeum to let them pass thro', but they are no ways concerned with each other, they pass under the Peritonaeum thro' the Ring in the external Oblique Muscle, into the Groin following nearly the sweep of the Pelvic Rim, that is

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that is, they run downwards and inwards; just as they pierce the Tendon of the external oblique muscle they join the Vas Deferens. (The Intestines are contained in the cavity of the Abdomen, and therefore whenever a bowel is pushed thro' the ring forming the Rupture, either the Peritoneum must be stretched out before the Bowel, which is most commonly the case, and then that part of it is called the Hernial Sac, or it must be torn to let the Bowel pass - Where the great Spermatic and Vein pass under Poupart's Ligament to go to the thigh, theinguinal Artery arises from the former, and goes upwards to the Pectus Muscles. The Intestines in a Femoral Rupture are sometimes on the other, or perhaps on both generally, however they are on that side of it near the Pubis. Underneath the Tendon, the spermatic Vessels have other parts united with them, and then the whole takes the name of spermatic Chord. The Chord consists of Artery, Vein, Vas Deferens and Cremaster Muscles with nervous filaments, and lymphatic Vessels, and passes above by the projecting part of the Os Pubis just over the Interior end of Poupart's Ligament. The Cremaster Muscle is made of some of the fibres of the oblique Intermus that come from the spine of the Ilium, it wraps itself all around the Chord, and goes with it thro' the Ring to the Testicles, it suspends the Testicle in the Scrotum, and spreads its fibres over the body of this gland, by its action it draws the Testicle upwards towards the Pubis. besides this the Chord has a thin Condensous Fascia from the outer part of the Tendon of the external oblique muscle.

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Old Authors say, there is no health proper to the Uterus & Testicles call'd by them Tunica Vaginalis Communis, but the Spermatick fluid has no vaginal coats, it is connected with the testis by Cellular Membranes only, to the Testicle however there belongs a bag or coat call'd Tunica Vaginalis propria, which while it is unopened makes the Testicle appear one even oblong mass.

This bag is loose from the Testicle every where, except a little longitudinal part behind, where it is connected with it in its whole length; In this Bag the water of an Hydrocele is lodged, and obscures the Testicle except at its back part, where it may be felt with the finger, every where else the Testicle is cover'd with water, and cannot be felt. If we open the Bag the Testicle appears to be composed of a body, and the Epididymis loosely connected with the body. The Tunica Vaginalis is originally Pustular as will be shewn when we come to the Scrotal Testicle; it is reflected over the Testicle and forms its outer coat call'd Tunica Albuginea so that the water of an Hydrocele can touch nothing but this Membrane. The Testicle is an oblong body one end laid upwards and forwards, the other downwards and backwards; the Spermatick fluid enters it at its posterior side, that where it is connected with the Tunica Vaginalis behind, the Vessels at the upper end, and the Vas Deferens at the lower; the Epididymis is upon the back part of the Testicle, and outside of the Vessels, it begins with a knot at the upper end and runs to the lower end, and makes another knot there; by observing these

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These circumstances we can tell the Right from the Left, the lower end of the Epididymis turns in and then runs up to form the Vas Deferens which runs upon the Inside of the Spermatic Artery and Vein in the Cord Branch, and go principally to the Testicle, some of the branches go to the Spermatic Artery. These branches which go to the Testicle run in a very Serpentine manner call'd Vasa Ampiniformia; the Vein being large are apt to become varicose. These vary from a troublesome and oftentimes a painful disease call'd Varicocele, frequently appearing and disappearing suddenly, it gives an odd uneasy pain sitting or standing, which is much abated by supporting the Testicle. It may not uncommonly be caused by a too great tightness of the Waistband of the Breeches. Now for the structure of the Testicle and Epididymis. The Testicle is immediately inclosed in a strong Tendinous Coat call'd Tunica Albuginea, united with it, but a small force will separate them, & the great strength and firmness of this membrane the great pain of the bruised Testicle is owing, and hinders the swelling and injured parts are more or less painful in proportion as they are distended with more or less difficulty, the pain of this part is very similar to that of the stomach when it is bruised, it is a dull oppressive pain and entirely unmanly. The substance of the Testicle is all vascular. The spermatic Artery & Vein both proceed to the foresaid principally, but some branches proceed round it. Writers speak of a Tubular substance appearing from a transverse section, the tubes proceeding from a Context to the circumference in several portions like a orange or Lemon.

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Sperm, but this seems to have no foundation; Besides Arteries, Veins, Lymphatic Vessels, and nerves, there is in the substance of the curling threads or tubuli which are long and twisted up in a wonderful manner; these are the secretory Vessels that carry the Semen, we cannot trace them into the Vas Deferens, but the Vas Deferens may be traced into these Tubes, the Vas Deferens is very thick externally without the Abdomen, and may be easily distinguished in the Chord with the fingers. If Quicksilver is poured into it, it goes down to the lower end of the Testicle, and whereas that the Epididymis is made of this Tube twisted into a surprising number of convolutions, and at last dividing into a number of Tubes it enters the body of the Testicle at the upper end, and is then lost; by proceeding in this manner the tubuli Testis may be injected; The two ends of the Epididymis are closely fixed to the body of the Testicle above and below, but its middle part is loosely fixed. The present Professor Monroe has observed, that there sometimes is a Tube which runs up from the Epididymis into the substance of the Chord, and this he supposed to be an absorbing Vessel, that takes up the Semen from the Testicle and conveys it into the Blood Vessels when not draughted off by coition. Dr Hunter has ^{seen} it more than once, but he thinks that it is a Luxus naturae, for in one case he found it running up to the Chord, and coming down to the Epididymis again, and he never could trace it but any communication between this Tube and the Vessels; and in another case of this kind he injected the Tube with Mercury and found it to have an imperious and a blind Tube.

We

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We shall now make a few Reflections on *Prostatitis* in Adults. The most common of them is the *Prostatitis*, when the Intestine comes thro' the Ring into the Urethra; and by degree descends into the Urethra. In coming down it carries along with it the *Prostatitis* sac as to be contained in a Bag called the *Hernial Sac*; this *Hernial Sac* is directed towards the Testicle within the middle of the Chord, and has the *Cremaster Muscle* stretched over it; it forces its way thro' the cellular membrane of the Chord, being directed down it by the *Cremaster Muscle*, forming as it were a sheath around it, but connected with it.

From what has been said it appears, that in Adults the Intestine can never get down to the body of the Testicle because of its reflected membrane the *Tunica Vaginalis*, neither can the water of an *Hydrocele* ever get into the Chord, so that there may be an *Hernia* in the Chord, and unten in the *Tunica Vaginalis* existing on the same side without any communication with each other, but it we shall find that in *Prostatitis* which happens to Children the case is different, the Intestine being often found in contact with the Testicle.

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Lecture 29

We will next take a View of the Testicle as it is in the Fetus. In the Fetus the Testicle is plac'd in the Abdomen on the fore-part of the Psoas Muscle covered with the Peritonæum. The Vasa Deferens does not run with the Artery and Vein, but goes downwards, & backwards, it has a pyramidal body, having to its lower end called Gubernaculum, as large as itself, so call'd because it seems to guide the Testicle into the scrotum; when got down into the Scrotum, a probe may be pass'd thro' an Aperture from the Abdomen down to the body of the Testicle thro' a sheath which is afterward obliterated except at the lower part where it always makes a bag for containing the Testicle call'd Tunica Vaginalis, so that the Tunica Vaginalis is plainly an elongation of the Peritonæum. This sheath is a long cavity contracted like the end of a bottle at its upper part, and dilated to contain the Testicle at its lower, it is afterwards every where obliterated except what is immediately upon the Testicle and a very little way up the Cord. Haller was the first who describ'd the descent of the Testicle from the Abdomen into the Groin, by which D Hunter easily accounted for the Congenial Hernia hinted to him by Mr Sharp about the year 1742. The Gubernaculum and Testicle generally descend to the scrotum about a month or two before birth. In their Descent they drag the Peritonæum thro' the Ring, and it then forms a bag communicating with the cavity of the Abdomen, the Peritonæum that originally cover'd the Testicle makes the Tunica Albuginea, and if the Intestine should descend into —

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into the bag it will touch the Albuginea, so that the Hernial body will be in contact with the Testicle in an adult the Hydrocele and Hernia may be distinct from each other, but in a Vetus, they cannot because of the Tunica Vaginalis opening into the Abdomen

The Penis is made up of spongy substance incased with a Tunic - our breath, which when the Penis is flaccid the blood is thrown out of the spongy substance, and then becomes soft, This spongy body is double One on each side call'd Corpus Cavemosum, underneath these and between the two there is another spongy body call'd Corpus Spongiosum Urethrae, having the Urethra running thro' it. The two Corpora Caverosa separate under the Pubis, & are fixed to the inside of the bone, one on each making the Crus Penis. The Corpus spongiosum Urethrae goes down to the Perineum & makes the bulk of the Urethra. The Corpora Caverosa terminate forwards each in a point, then they are covered with the Glans, which is formed of the Corpus spongiosum Urethrae continued over them. We shall now consider the parts concerned in the operation of Lithotomy. Before the Symphysis of the Pubis is the Urethra, and a little lower is the bulb of the Urethra lying in the Perineum. The Anus has a circular muscle call'd Sphincter Ani by which it is constricted and kept close, on each side of the Anus is a broad thin plane of muscular fibres call'd Levator Ani, whose office is to raise the Anus, & assist in going to stool. The muscles of the Penis are the Erectores Penis, which arise near the Tuberosity of the Ischium, & run forward & upward into the Penis, but how they erect the Penis is not clear; the Acceleratores Urinae come down obliquely, & backwards from the Crus Penis on each side

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side and cover the bulb of the Urethra, making where they meet a middle white Tonsilous line along the bulb; they are said to act by jerks to throw out the last Drop of Urine. The Perinaeum has one muscle call'd the Transversalis Perinae. The cavity of the Urethra is larger when the Penis is relaxed than when it is erected, which accounts for the difficulty with which we make water when the Penis is erected. It is difficult to say where the bulb begins or ends, it is only part of the Urethra made larger than the rest. In Coitus the Acceleratores throw the venient out of the Urethra by compressing it & making smaller, & increase the quantity of blood in the corpus spongiosum & by this means to open the Canal also, the Canal being fill'd with semen to be expelled by the action of this pair of muscles. The Transversalis Perinae arises from the inside of the Tubercity of the Ischium on each side & goes into the Perinaeum. To introduce a staff it is much better to keep the concave part to the patients body from the beginning, & when the end has got into the Perinaeum raise it a little & it will go into the Bladder. The old Surgeons introduced the staff by keeping the convex part to the patients body till the point got to the inner part of the Symphysis of the Pubis, then turning it they carried it into the Bladder. In the old way of cutting for the stone the parts were made to project by the staff nearly in the middle of the Perinaeum, but commonly a little to the left side; the incision was made upon the bulb of the Urethra. The parts cut thro' were the Integument, the left Accelerator Urinae and the Transversalis Perinae, the spongy part of the Urethra.

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Urethra and Bulb, all the passage between the bulb & bladder was stretched or torn to make way for the Instrument. Mr Cheselden introduced the new, or lateral Method in general practice. He said that the Canal of the Urethra was too small to admit the necessary instrument, he conceived therefore that cutting the Canal on the bladder would be attended with less inconvenience and danger than the stretching or tearing it. To this the favourers of the old Method of Lithotomy answered, that the passage could not be safely cut into any farther than the bulb. Because of the Prostate being in the way. But Mr Cheselden said that if the parts were turned considerably, to one side (the left commonly) so that the Staff should come near the Isthmus, an incision might be made parallel to the bone down the groove of the Staff in the bulb, and that by plunging the point of the knife into the groove of the Staff in the bladder, turning the edge of the knife upward an incision might be made thro' the Prostate gland & membranous part of the Urethra from the bladder to the Bulb. The method most commonly used is the lateral. The Surgeon in this cuts the left Accelerator Uria part of the Transversalis Perinae, a little of the Levator being the bulb of the Urethra; this is all that is done by the Knife, is not as Mr Cheselden says. The Corpora Caverosa Penis, as we said before are two strong Tendinous substances, on their outside laid & close together for the greater part, but behind are divided to make the Curia Penis, between them, & the upper side there is a groove call'd Uria Majora, call'd Uria minor Penis and Uria

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Below Penis, below there is another groove between them for the Corpus spongiosum Urethrae. The middle partition between the two Corpora Caverosa is called the Pecten, for two thirds of its length nearest the Glans it is perforated into Intervices like a Comb, thro which there is a communication between the Corpora Caverosa, and by injecting the one, we inject the other also, but the other third part is a firm Septum without any Intervices or Perforations; thro the center of each Corpus Caverosum runs an Artery, & the blood carried by them is taken up and returned by the Vein in the groove on the back of the Penis, the coat of the Corpus Spongiosum Urethrae is very thin. That a continuation of the Corpus Spongiosum Urethrae makes the Glans is very plainly seen because by injecting that we also fill the Glans, which is not the case if we inject the Corpora Caverosa. The Cells of these spongy parts dont seem to be similar to the Cells in bone and other parts to communicate with each other, but appear to be made up of plicureses of Veins. The Vessels of the Penis are an Artery running thro each Corpus Caverosum, on the upper part or back of the Penis a Vein called Vena magna & makes all the veins of the Penis, on the outside of each Artery is a Nerve dispeering itself every where, towards the fore part of the Penis there are chords going across thro the Corpora Caverosa to prevent as it were too much distension & enlargement in erection. these were first taken notice of by Morgagni. The Integuments of the Penis are the same as of the other parts of the body. In the first place it has Cellular Membrane, which is here very tough, so as to have been called by some a Tendinous Sheath.

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Sheath; where the Penis is connected to the fore part of the Symplyc
40 is of the Penis the Cellulosa Membrane is particularly strong
and has been called Ligamentum Suspensorium Penis, but it can
hardly be called a Ligament; it seems to be only a common Mem-
branous connection. The Cuticle, Skin, & Rete Mucosum are very
thin on the Penis & never have any fat under them even in the
fatted bodies. The Prepuce incloses the Glans & is nothing more
than a fold of the skin, & the skin reflected over the Glans makes
its coat, so that the Glans is covered three times over with the Skin
and it has the Rete Mucosum too, tho' that does not appear
because of its thinness, as in the Lip; The Prepuce makes a
tight band underneath call'd Frenum, which is fixed to the
underside of the Glans, & draws the Glans down in Erection.

The Frenum is sometimes too tight naturally, and may
therefore be cut through, or by repeated coitions it is gradually
broke thro', and becomes loose; around the Basis of the Glans
there are said to be a number of little glands, which secrete that
mucus or fluid that is of a fishy smell, after it has been retained
sometime under the Prepuce, there is a little hole on each side
that appears by the help of a Magnifying to be source of this
fluid. Here it may not be improper to recommend clean-
-liness of all kinds, for it is very probable that many cutaneous
Diseases are owing to nastiness obstructing the pores of the
skin; tho' we cannot use any nastiness on the skin with the
naked Eye yet by examining with a Magnifier we can plainly
see

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see it very foul. Frequent washing and warm bathing should be advised, especially in Diseases of the Skin. The Greeks used much bathing both warm and cold and we do not that cutaneous diseases were so frequent among them as among us. A Lady consulted Dr Hunter for a general itching all over the skin; he judged it to arise from an internal uncleanness of the skin and directed the warm bath, in twice using of the remedy she was perfectly freed of her complaint. Whenever there is a general itching it is Ten to One but it proceeds from the before mentioned cause, and if the warm bath be made use of it will as certainly be cured. The two proper Diseases of the Prepuce are the Phymosis, and Paraphymosis. The Phymosis is a common complaint of a young Child, and very often continues naturally thro' Life. It is occasioned by the ring of the Skin being too small to suffer the Glans to be uncovered and is very painful when inflamed, often however it continues without any Inconvenience. When it becomes troublesome and painful it is cured by splitting up the prepuce longitudinally and setting it at liberty, so that the Glans may be uncovered. The Paraphymosis is a girding of the Prepuce behind the Glans when that is uncovered, so that it cannot be returned back again over the Glans. They who have a tight foreskin are often liable to have a Paraphymosis when the prepuce is drawn off the

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off the Glans, and by binding round the neck of the Glans it occasions Inflammation, and Distension so as to prove dangerous, if not relieved by making an incision through the tight Prepuce, and setting it free; a narrowing of the Prepuce is the occasion of both these diseases, and both are cured by a Longitudinal Incision.

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The General Contents of the Pelvis

Lecture 30th

Having now considered the external parts of the male organs of generation, we shall take a View of the general contents of the Pelvis. The Terms, above and below, have been used in three different senses when applied to the Pelvis, which has occasioned much confusion; when we speak of the parts contained in the Pelvis, we shall always refer them to the Axis of the Pelvis, by which we mean a line supposed to be drawn from the Ind of the Os Coccygis upwards and forwards midway between the Symphyses of the Pubis and Sacrum. The Paries of the Anterior half of the Pelvis is nowhere bony except the Os Pubis; the sides are bony at the upper, but not at the lower part; the Sacrum and the Os Coccygis make the Paries of the Posterior half; the lower part of the Anterior half from the Os Coccygis to the Os Pubis is made of the Levator Ani, the Sphincter Ani, & more forwards by the Transversalis Perinaei. The Situation of the Anus in general is at some little distance from the outside of the Os Coccygis between the angle made by the Arteries below & the under part of the Os Pubis at its Symphysis, and before it are placed the Penis, the Transversalis Perinaei, Levator, Sphincter Ani, the Acceleratores Urinae, Erectores Penis, and Bulb of the Urethra over the fleshy bium of the Pelvis made by the Psoas Musculi; on the left side passes down the sigmoid flexion of the Colon with a little of the Mesentery connected with it to form the Rectum. The Rectum in the human body is not straight as its name implies but is

so in —

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so in the Quadruped, it lies in the hollow of the Sacrum, & inside of the Os Coccygis & terminates at the Anus. It is every where supported by bone or muscle, & lies so close to the bone, that to introduce the finger per anum it must follow the course of the Os Coccygis & not be pushed directly upward, but obliquely backwards, it follows the turn of the Sacrum, and Os Coccygis making near two side flexions, and is larger than the Colon to be a Reservoir for a quantity of feces, which are retained by the action of the Sphincter, till we evacuate them; this contrivance prevents us from the necessity of continually going to stool, when the Rectum is full of feces it preposon & greatly alters the Situation of the Viscera which are near it, & when its Muscular Action is weakened or destroyed as is sometimes the case, particularly in Women & old People, hard feces are often accumulated & must be broke in pieces before they can be ejected. The upper anterior part of the bladder is connected loosely to the Symphysis of the Pubes by cellular Membrane, its shape is oblong, its lower anterior part is joined to the Prostate gland & is always in the same situation, but at its back part it is continually varying in size from the different quantity of urine it contains at different times; when there is little or no Urine in the Bladder it contracts itself to almost a solid body, & when much distended with Urine, it then rises considerably above the Pubes. Dr Hunter once saw it so much distended by suppression of Urine that it rose as high up as midway between the Navel & Umbilicus Cordis. Patients have been cured for the stone by making an incision above the Pubes into the Bladder, this is called the High Operation.

It can

The General Contents of the Pelvis

It can only be performed without hurting the Peritonaeum, when the Bladder is distended & rises with the Peritonaeum a considerable space above the Os Pubis, for when it is not distended, it is situated below the Os Pubis, and an Incision made then will wound the Peritonaeum twice before it gets into the bladder. The Prostate Gland passes over the whole space between the Bladder & the Rectum, lying very closely on the latter, it may be distinctly felt in ano, if it be passed beyond the Sphincter, it feels like a hard roundish body. That part of the prostate Gland which is connected with the bladder is called its Basis, & the opposite side its apex. The Vesiculae Seminales are situated immediately under the bladder beyond the prostate Gland. The Ureter passes down from the kidney over the fleshy, Basin of the Pelvis under the Peritonaeum to the under side of the bladder, terminating in it, and a depending part with respect to the cavity of the pelvis. The Vasa Deferentia separate from the spermatici & pass down the sides of the Pelvis & Bladder within side of the Ureters to the Vesiculae seminales. The Urethra begins at the lower part of the bladder, so that every drop of Urine may run out & therefore we see the reason why a Man afflicted with stone shall all of a sudden have the Urine stop in making water, because the stone by its gravity falls on the beginning of the Urethra & stops the passage & why he comes better in an horizontal posture, because the stone then gravitates to another part of the bladder; it passes into the upper side of the Prostate Gland nearly at the middle of the Basis & comes out at its under side a little below the apex, so as to run almost thro' the upper flat side of this oblong body. The bulbous part of the Urethra is without the sinuses of the Urethra towards the Perinaeum. The

Canal

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Canal that lies between this & the Prostate Gland is the membranous part of the Urethra. The bulbous part is an enlargement of the Canal, & the membranous part does not enter it plump at its middle, and so go thro' it, but enter it at its upper side all the way thro', so that it hangs pendulous from the Urethra. All the most sinuous part is within the muscles of the Penis, & lies close to the Rectum. By introducing a finger into the Rectum beyond the muscle of the anus, the groove of a staff may be distinctly felt in the membranous part. The difficulty that sometimes happens in introducing the staff is occasioned by the end of the Instrument getting into a cavity of the Prostate Gland. To remedy this, withdraw the instrument a little, then raise the end by depressing the hand, and it will readily pass into the bladder, if still any difficulty should remain; it sticks, introduce the finger in ano, then withdraw the staff a little, & draw the parts with the finger in ano towards the Perineum which will make the root of the Canal straight, then raise the end a little, & it goes into the bladder. Authors are very inaccurate in their descriptions of these parts. Le Druan in considering the mode of the different ways of cutting for the stone made a drawing of these parts, which being judged by Heister to be their real situation is adopted by him in his book of Surgery. The parts are there drawn at a Distance from the Rectum, so that a knife might pass safely between it, & the bladder for some way up the prostate Gland is not drawn in its proper situation, but lies at a considerable distance from the Rectum, & the Urethra is made to enter at the middle of the Penis & runs thro' it; These are evident Blunders

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Bladders, & the Bladder & Prostate Gland, & all the parts that are in a line with the Rectum are closely adhering to it, & there is no space between them - The Peritonaeum goes down lining the inside of the cavity of the lower part of the Abdomen, & then covers the upper part of the bladder & Rectum, but a very little indeed of the bladder - All the parts below the Peritonaeum is in the cavity of the Pelvis in the cellular Membrane, In the old method of Lithotomy the parts were all made to project nearly in the middle of the Perineum and the incision could not be carried farther than the bulb of the Urethra, because the Rectum lay in the way, & must be wounded if the knife were carried farther towards the bladder, the membranous part therefore and Prostate Gland were dilated or torn to make way for the extraction of the stone - To avoid the ill consequences of tearing or stretching so principal a part as the Urethra & Prostate Gland Mr Chevalden made use of the lateral Method, & describes his manner of doing it in this way - First introduce the staff & pass it to the left side of the Perineum so as to carry the Urethra & Prostate Gland towards the Tuberosity of the Ischiurn, & to keep the Rectum clear tworders a finger to be introduced in ano, & the gut to be drawn to the right side, then the incision to be made down to the staff in the bulbous part of the Urethra by cutting from the side of the Tuberosity of the Ischiurn towards the Perineum, & by placing the back of the knife in the groove to carry the incision on thro the membranous part & prostate gland into the bladder the Prostate Gland lies so deep in the Body, & so close to the Rectum, that there is hardly a Possibility of cutting through it without wounding the Rectum

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Rectum, and the prostatic and membranous part lie so closely connected to the Rectum that they cannot be pressed aside from it, but if they are pressed to one side the Rectum will follow; It has happened to many Surgeons who have cut directly into the bladder with the knife, that the Rectum has been wounded, & the parts lie so near it, that this Accident cannot be avoided if we follow Mr Chevaldon's Advice - We can't with safety, then, cut farther than the bulbous part of the Urethra, if we make use of the knife only; And many People cut in Mr Chevaldon's Way were rendered impotent by the division of the seminal Ducts.

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Lecture 31st

Having now considered the situation of the general contents of the
Pelvis, we shall return to the male organs. The Scrotum may be
considered as an elongation of the Skin & Cellular Membrane of the
Penis, for by inflating the one we inflate the other also, It is ready
formed in a Testis for the Reception of the Testicles, at what time
the Testicles come down we don't certainly know, but from observing
that in general a child born at seven months has them not down
& that a child born at eight months has, we conclude that for
the most part they come down one or two months before birth.
It has been supposed that the Efforts of breathing in the Child
attempting to cry protruded the Testicles in the manner of a
Rupture or Inguinal Hernia, but this is hardly, the case, if it
is done by an Internal process that we are not acquainted with.
As to Structure the Scrotum is made of Cellular Membrane. Some
have described a muscle belonging to the scrotum by the name of
Dartos, but without any reason, there being nothing like Muscular
fibre to be seen, the use of it was said to be to congregate the scrotum
along the scrotum from the Penis backwards. It is a middle line called
the Raphe. Many have described the Septum Scroti, & said
that it is a hard Ligamentous partition dividing the scrotum
into two sides & cutting off all communication between them.
But it is only a firmer Cellular Membrane with vessels running
upon it from the Penis, making such a Partition as that there is
a passage thro' from one side to the other. This has been the
Subject of much Dispute. It is the Cellular Membrane more
Ligamentous

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Ligamentous & firm, but so as his will pass thro' it, & serves as a Suspensory Ligament to the scrotum to support the Testicles, with the internal Male Organs we must take the Urinary Bladder, especially as it is intimately connected with them.

In Morgagni's Time the Bladder was figured as it is in Quadruped, particularly as it is in a deg. of a Pyramidal shape with a broad part called the Fundus, & the bladder contracting gradually smaller & smaller into a narrow part called the Cervix which runs invariably into the Urethra, but it is not so in the human body, its neck to which the Prostate Gland is connected, is in the middle of the larger part & is there called Cervix its Fundus being the smaller part, in both however the most depending part is the most capacious; Some have reckoned that part of the bladder connected with the prostate Gland to be the neck, & call'd it Cervix Vesicæ, others have considered all that broad part where the Urethra comes out from as the Cervix, so that it is difficult to understand what is meant by the Term Cervix Vesicæ; in a Testis it is most commonly shaped as in a Quadruped, but as we get on and more onto the perpendicular Attitude, the weight of the Urine makes the lower part more capacious, & the Fundus then becomes smaller. Before we speak of the Situation of the bladder we shall take a View of the situation of the Vesicula Seminales, & Vasa Deferentia. The Vesicula Seminales lie underneath the bladder almost united together at the Basis of the Prostate, & running backward & from

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and from each other outwards to the sides of the Rectum. The Vasa Deferentia are two very small Tubes till they come under the bladder, where they are enlarged & with a duct from each Vesicula Seminalis they enter the Prostate, & open into the Urethra by two small Orifices on each side of the Caput Gallinaginis. The Peritonaeum covers only the upper part of the bladder, & therefore cannot be reckoned a Coat, under this Ground the Bladder in general is the cellular Membrane; at the upper part of the bladder there is a point call'd Urachus, from which a pipe goes in the Quadruped States to convey the Urine into the Bladder, & the outer coat of the bladder is muscular, composed of two layers of fibres - the outer layer arises all round from the Prostate, & hence its fibres spread longitudinally over the whole Bladder upwards, under this is a layer of circular fibres running round the bladder, on the inside of this Muscular coat the longitudinal & circular fibres are so mixed as to make a network in all directions -

The Use of the Muscular coat is to contract the bladder, & expel the Urine, which is accelerated by the action of the Abdominal muscles & Diaphragm, in straining to answer this purpose, & that the compression may be made equally every where, the fibres are disposed in all directions. In an Obstruction of the Urethra when the Bladder is often much distended with Urine, the Muscular coat does more than its duty and becomes stronger; from much action the whole substance is thickened considerably; this has been generally look'd on as a Disease of the

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of the bladder, & called Scirrhus - But Mr John Hunter says it is only improved in its muscular coat & therefore is thicker, sometimes twice or thrice as thick as it is naturally; when ever we see a bladder of this kind we may almost be sure of the Urthra having being diseased; In People who are often smothering water and that too with great difficulty there is now and then a protrusion of the Internal coat thro the muscular one by some of the fibres separating from one another. By yielding to pressure made on the Urine by the contraction of the bladder & pouches are formed, as was the case of Mr Gardiner, who had several of them at that part of the bladder which lies upon the Rectum, the internal coat was forced thro the muscular into the Cellular Membrane; the pouches contained stones & opened by a very small Orifice into the bladder. The first general coat then is the muscular one, the next general one is the anterior Membrane of the bladder. Authors speak of a Tunica nervosa between the outers & inner coat, but there is no such coat, it is only a common membrane connecting the two together. The bladder like other membranous parts may elong. A Woman, who had suffered greatly from a Retention of Urine during a Labour, had a considerable portion of the bladder phacelated & elongated away thro the Urthra. Dr Hunter ordered her to take large quantities of bark, & contrary to his expectation she lived for some time & went into the Country after which he heard no more of her, but he supposes that the Urine must have gradually found its way, onto the cellular Membrane of the Pelvis & occasioned her Death in length of time. The Inner Coat

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Coat is an exceeding fine thin Membrane. Anatomists say that it is Villous like the stomach & Intestines, but it has no Villi. The Use of the internal Membrane is certainly not for strength, but by its closeness of Texture to confine the Urine, which would otherwise get thro' the muscular Coat. The Apertures on the inside of the bladder are three, two by which the Urine comes in from the Ureters, & one by which it goes out into the Urethra; the Orifice of the Ureters are very small, of an oval shape, & opening obliquely so as to admit a probe with difficulty. The Ureters run slanting thro' the Coat before they open internally, they make a ridge on each side in the inner coat, which ridge running on from the Orifice meet at the Prostate Gland. This slanting direction serves all the Uses of a Valve, the urine goes into the bladder drop by drop, but cannot return because the internal coat is pressed against the other side of the Orifice so as to stop it. At the inside of the Urethra which makes the third Orifice, there is nothing Valvular. From a thickening of the substance of the bladder in consequence of frequency & difficulty in making water, it happens that the Ureters lose their Valvular insertion, so that the Urine when the bladder contracts is forced on the Ureters, the consequence of which is the Ureters become dilated & so does the Pelvis of the Kidneys. Patients have been cut for the Stone by making an Incision above the Os Pubis &c as was mentioned before. But to return to the Male Organs

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Organs; Having considered them in the course of the secretion of the Semen, we shall next consider them in the excretion, and principally the Vasa Deferentia & Vesicula Seminales become cellular & communicate with them, from each Vesicula Seminalis a Vas Deferens goes a Duct which all unite into One where they first enter the Prostate gland. Lymphatics first said that the Vesicula Seminales were not cellular, but that they were a continuation of the Tubes of the Vasa Deferentia convoluted, or like a long bag crumpled up together. But beside, being a tube they branch like a Stag horn throwing out lateral causties. The Use of the Vesicula is supposed to be that of a Reservoir for Semen to remain till a quantity is collected & wanted for Emission. But Mr John Hunter is of opinion that they don't contain Semen, but secrete their own fluid, which is of a greenish, brown colour totally different from semen. Upon examining the Vesicula Seminales of a Man whose head was cut off, the fluid was found of this colour. A Man died in St Georges Hospital who had formerly had one Testicle extirpated, he then conceived that if the Vesicula Seminales naturally contained semen, that now one Testicle was gone the Vesicula of this side must be wasted, but upon examining the Man's body, the Vesicula Seminales of both sides were equally full & tinged as ever & the fluid in them was of a greenish brown colour. To support the doctrine of the Vesicula Seminales being Reservoirs for Semen against Emission, it was said that a Man thinks for some time on Emission, before he goes

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goes to it, that during that time the semen is collecting in the *Vesicula Seminalis* so that he may be prepared, but that a Dog copulates without any previous thinking on it, therefore he has the semen to prepare during coition, & remains so a considerable time for that reason, & therefore on this account he has no need of *Vesicula seminalis*, accordingly he has none. The prostate Gland is an oblong body with a notch at its basis, where the two common Ducts of the *Vesicula Seminalis* & the *Ductus deferentia* on each side enter. It is a firm glandular substance full of white mucus especially in young men which flows thro' Ducts opening by several Orifices on the sides of the *Caput Gallinaginis*, & by pressing the gland the mucus may be squeezed out of them into the *Urethra*. The use of this mucus is not known, no more is that of the *Liquor* of the *Vesicula Seminalis*; From this appearance of mucus the Prostate was supposed to be the seat of a Clap, that it was Inflammation, but this is plainly not the case, tho' seemingly divided into two lateral portions it is one & the same body; along the side of the *Urethra* on the Prostate Gland is a longitudinal Ridge broader behind & loosing itself gradually as it goes forwards in a narrow point this is called *Caput Gallinaginis* from its supposed resemblance to the head of a woodcock, call'd by others the *verum Montanum*, from its making a little mount in the *Urethra*, & its narrow part appearing like a spit. The two openings of the *Vesicula Seminalis* on each side of the broad part, are call'd the

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Eyes of a woodcock, & beside these two holes there is a third as it were between them, it is a small glandular Follicle, or blind bag.

We have said that there is sometimes a difficulty in introducing the Staff, it arises from the end getting into a cavity under a shoulder made by the Basis of the Prostate, by withdrawing the instrument a little to disengage it from the cavity & raise the end, it may easily be pushed clear of the shoulder into the bladder.

Cooper's glands are just under the membranous part within the bulb of the Urethra one on each side, they have a duct that runs considerably forwards & opens into the Urethra. Now the Urethra from the membranous part of the glands, to the inner membrane, of introducing an instrument especially a rough catheter. & about it there are a number of little glandular Follicles, or blind Lacunae analogous to those orifices of Cooper's glands, there is commonly a pretty large one on the upper side where the Urethra makes a Turn under the Triangular to go thro' the glands, these Lacunae are softer & so large as to receive the end of a small candle & will stop it if we do not follow the Turn of the part in introducing it, to remedy this, withdraw it a little & by pressing the end downwards, push it forwards & it will readily pass.

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Lecture 32³

We know nothing of the glandular secretion of the Testicles; that their office is to separate the Prolific Semen is evident from Castration rendering a Man incapable of getting a Child; but how this change is produced in the gland so that it has properties it had not before we don't know; we cannot inject Mercury or any other fluid into the secretory or Excretory Vessels by the testis; besides this there is the Prostate Gland, a considerable one which throws out a fluid into the Urethra, the use of which we don't know nor that from Cowper's glands, neither are we acquainted with the glary acrid fluid that oozes out from all the Urethra. We don't know the use of these further than that they serve to defend the inner Membrane of the Urethra from the stimulus of the Urine & one of the most common diseases to which the Male Organs are liable is the Gonorrhoea which generally speaking is an increased secretion of Mucus from the internal Membrane of the Urethra, & when not owing to Venereal Poison is occasioned by sharp Juices in the constitution, this sometimes it is quite local in its cause; In Women, more especially those of tender habits it is very common, more so than in Men.

The Venereal Gonorrhoea is known to be an inflammation of the internal Membrane of the Urethra for the most part, & brought on by the Infection of Venereal Poison & Some have thought that the discharge flowed from the Lacuna, others from the Prostate Gland, & others from the Vesicular Seminalis; it is pretty plain however that the Clap affects not only one part, but every part of the Urethra, that is, this at first it affects only one particular part

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part, it spreads from place to place till at last it affects the whole. The Venereal poison affects parts only that are without a cuticle or where the cuticle is very thin, which is the Reason why the Urethra is so often affected & not the skin of the Penis, so that even a Gonorrhoea is sometimes internal from the Urethra & sometimes external from the place where the cuticle is very thin in both there is a copious discharge of mucus like Pus which gradually diminishes & sometimes cures itself, tho' not often Mercury being a specific internally for the Venereal poison has led many to use it externally to destroy the poison on a particular part, & seems to have been successful, but as it has been said to have produced hurtful sometimes, it is not to be recommended very strongly, when thus used the best way of preparing it, is by dissolving the crude Mercury with Gum Arabic; If there be any little crack in the cuticle or little sore any where about the Penis, a Chancre is the consequence of the Application of the Poison to that part, tho' there may be a Clap notwithstanding from a Venereal Ulcer there is danger of Absorption of matter & affection of the general habit; therefore this is often seen in the case of a Bubo & Ulcers of the Testis &c. As there are external Chancres on the Penis, so also there are internal Chancres in the Urethra, which in healing form a cicatrix & puckering up of the inner Membrane so as to contract the passage of the Urethra. The Corpora Caverosa are generally equally distended & hard in Erection of the Penis, but from a cicatrix on one or both of them, they are sometimes prevented from

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from being equally distended. A young man had the Syphila Cancerous broken, & when healed there was a cicatrice, that made the Penis form a right angle when erected by drawing the end of it down, & to one side. We come now to speak of some of the diseases of the Testicle, the most common is the Hydrocele or a collection of water in the bag that contains the Testicle, the Tunica Vaginalis; sometimes the water is contained in two or more bags, for an Hydrocele may be formed in the cellular membrane round the Tunica Vaginalis as well as in any other part of the body, which pushing the coat inwards will make a Tumor distinct from that caused by the water in the coat, but this is not properly Hydrocele as the water is not within the coat; when there is more than one Hydrocele it is probably owing to inflammation having made adhesions of the coat to the Testicle so as to form distinct bags in which the water is collected; with the Hydrocele there is often a disease of the Testicles at least of their coats; when this is the case, the Radical cure is forbid being attempted by all prudent Surgeons. The Testicle often becomes Scirrhous, sometimes the Scirrhous is only in the Tunica Albuginea, but most commonly it is in the substance of the Testicle, like other glandular parts it may then become Cancerous. Mr Hawthorn has a Painting done by Mr Hogarth of a Cancer of the coat of the Testicle, when the substance was perfectly free from it. Sterility happens in both men & women more generally however in the latter, what this is commonly owing to we are

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we are not able to say. Sometimes however it may be owing to an accident alteration in the Organs of Generation; Upon opening the body of a man it was plain from two reasons that he must have been incapable of getting a Child. In the first place if the Testicle had ever prepared any Sperm, there could have been no passage for it, for the Epididymis in both Testicles terminated in a blind point & tho' there were Vasa Deferentia they had no connection with the Epididymis, but ended before they arrived there, & secondly the Viscula Seminalia were far removed from the Prostate Gland & had the Vasa Deferentia entering them, but from the Vasa Deferentia or Viscula Seminalia there went no Duct at all, so that the Semen if any had been prepared, could not possibly get into the Uthra, but must have been absorbed & carried into the blood. We have already said that Saculi are formed in the bladder from a Stone stopping the Urine; & the bladder contracting on its contents, the Urine forces the inner coat thro' the Muscularis, the same thing happens from an enlarged & irksome Prostate Gland. In old People this Gland is often enlarged & sometimes to such a degree as to fill up the cavity of the Pelvis, & thrust the bladder above the Pubis, & the inner coat of the bladder hanging over the neck of the Uthra like a Valve, stops the Urine, the same thing happens as in the Stone a difficulty of introducing a Catheter or Staff may arise from this enlargement, & then the method of raising the end can't be serviceable. It is said that when we cannot introduce a Catheter the suppression of Urine begins to be dangerous, we must puncture the bladder

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Bladder with a Sacculus. Now when there is a large Prostate Gland which may be known by examining it, this cannot be done below the os Pubis, because the bladder is at a great distance & must therefore be done above the Pubis. It has been much disputed, whether there are ever any adhering stones in the Urinary Passages; It is certain through stones do adhere to the internal Membrane of the bladder by entangling with it & not as a living fruit; Calculi are found in the Orifices of the Lacuna about the Caput Gallinaginis, so that sometimes the substance of the Prostate Gland seems full of them, which this small give the same full as large stones & might deceive a surgeon. It is probable that some of the Patients who have been searched & said to have a stone in whom none was found, upon cutting have had this complaint, we should therefore be very much upon our guard. The most common cause of a stricture in the Urethra is a cicatrice from the healing of an Ulcer of the inner Membrane from an old standing Inflammation & Ulceration, there is a puckering up of the Membrane which contracts the passage & occasions a difficulty of making water. Le Deau supposes the Obstruction in the Urethra was caused by little fungous excrescences, but these are never found. Beyond the stricture sometimes a suppuration comes on, the urine makes its way thro' the Skin externally, & forms the Fistula in Perineo; instead of coming thro' the Orifice in the Gland, the Urine comes thro' this new one; but when this is the case, the Canal of the Urethra that before was only contracted, sometimes closes altogether, part of the natural passage is obstructed, & the water continues to pass regularly thro' the hole from the Urethra to the Perineum.

Diseases of Bones

Every Disease of a bone except Fracture has been called Caries. But a Carious bone is different from a dead one, it continues alive & changes it's texture, which a dead one does not. Caries is a disposition in a bone to change its texture from a kind of inflammation & is generally incurable; the bone is diseased thro' & thro' & no part of it becomes dead till separated from the rest. sometimes a piece of bone becomes dead in the middle of a Caries, & separated from it & is loose, it remains unchanged in its texture, while the carious part is very much changed; this change is very evident in 24 hours. The Venereal poison is very apt to affect the bones of the skull & make them carious, but we always find a Remedy in Mercury when the Skull is eroded thro' & thro' by any means whatever, it may be known by the rising & falling of the matter in the holes of the bone, in consequence of the Motion of the Dura Mater. Bones are more apt in some Subjects than others to run into one another from the redundancy of the Osseous Matter, as we see from the closing of the Frontal Sutures & firm union between the bones of some Pelvises. From Disease the bones are often eroded, or otherwise altered so that if by any change in the constitution the disease should stop, they grow together more especially in the joints, & are always incurable. In scrophulous habits it frequently happens, that there is a long continued inflammation & ulceration among the bones & the disease spreading at it sometimes does in young People the bones are by loose. It is plain that there is no such thing as an incomplete Venereal lesion.

Horry

21 Diseases of Bones

Bony substance when diseased is capable of changing its form thus in the Spina Ventra a small bone often becomes exceedingly large by a shooting out of the bony parts, there are cavities made in the bone, & water or gelatinous matter contained in them when once confined & shooting out from a small part only, it is called a sequestrum, when confined & killed more, a Protes. Bones sometimes swell out on striking an irregular surface without & within & become very spongy, at other times we find them eat away into cavities which are filled with blood, which seems to prove that the blood has a power of Dissolving bones — D Hunter in dissecting a body found that the substance of the Piles in several places was entirely gone, while the Perosteum remaining made cavities which contained Clots of blood, but recent ones in appearance — A Man who used to sell old cloaths had a swelling on his head which gradually increased till it became very large, when he died the head was examined & the Tumour found to proceed from blood, within the Skull was a fungus that had eroded the bone & thrust it out into a large efflorescence-like appearance, with a number of little cavities filled up with a gelatinous kind of flesh

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The Cutis Cuticula, & Pate Mucosum

Lecture 33^d

The cellular Membrane, Panniculus Carnosus, Cutis & Cuticula have been reckoned the Integuments of the body, but the first is no general covering; as for the Panniculus Carnosus it is not to be found in the human body, in Quadrupeds it is not it is a thin layer of muscular fibres immediately winding & attached to the skin properly so called; in Dogs it is very evident & is that Musculary which they shake their skin so quickly to throw off with. I have two then we reject from among the Integuments, & to the other two add a third which lies between them, to wit, the Pate Mucosum; first of the true skin, this is a pretty firm tough Membrane, & is that substance of which Leather is made, it is of a different thickness in different parts of the same body, generally, it is thickest behind on the back and neck, & thinnest before, very thin in all bending parts; It is Observed by Linnaeus & other Naturalists, that Animals in general have their skin thickest on the back part of their body, & by examining a piece of Leather we find, that the part which covered the back of the Animal is thickest. The skin has some degree of Elasticity, for if it is pinched up on the back of the hand for instance & let go again, it becomes smooth. It is probable tho' that the case of the cure of the Brian in the Hospital of Amsterdam is much exaggerated, for it is said that his skin was so elastic that he could draw it up on his shoulders & bring it forwards over his head & face like a cloth, & that if he left it go it would return
instantaneously

Cutis: Cuticula & Rete Mucosum

instantaneous by its proper place. It is most probable the elasticity we observed, depends as much if not more upon the Cellular Membrane connected with the skin below, for we cannot pinch up a bit of skin without taking up at the same time a number of fibres of Cellular Membrane. The substance of the skin according to Winslow is a firm texture of interwoven fibres like a piece of Mat. Dr. Guicholl used to chew a bit of Hamois Feather to illustrate this by tearing it, but this preparation was a deception & the fibrous appearance was owing to its vascular texture. It is a substance that contains but few vessels capable of carrying red blood unless, when inflamed, its vessels however are proved to be very numerous by injection; it appears to be Cellular Membrane condensed & becomes less porous, & is organized in a peculiar manner; the cicatrix of a wound in the skin is Cellular Membrane, not the same in its organization as the first skin; for in working of Leather in scraping off the Cellular Membrane if there is any cicatrix in the skin it comes out & leaves a hole. Thus the working of Leather way is always the case; the inner surface of the skin is supposed to be made unequal by the Roots of the Hair, & the cutaneous or Military Glands; Authors have talked very much at Random about the Military Glands; a Proof of their existence, the goose skin as it is called was brought for it was said that these little eminences were those glands, & that the red spots observable on the inside of an injected skin were the underside.

Cutis, Cuticula & Rete mucosum

the undersides of them; but from these we can plainly demonstrate that the hairs come, they are the Roots of the Hairs. On the skin there is a secretion of a greasy Mucus to keep the hair soft, which is probably caused by a peculiar Organisation placed at the Root of the hair, but what the Miliary glands are we dont certainly know. The Sebaceous glands of the skin secrete a particular kind of Mucus which may be equalled out like a worm generally of a white colour, tho' when there is a little black speck if you squeeze it, the Mucus comes out black. The Use of the Sebaceous glands is to secrete a fluid to preserve the skin from the ill effects of Cold, Dry air & Heat, therefore Negroes who are exposed to great heat have a larger quantity of them on their skin, & it being secreted in a greater quantity about the Nose is perhaps to defend the skin there from the Air of Respiration continually passing over it; when it dries in a little Pimple there is an Itching, we are immediately led as by instinct to remove this by rubbing & scratching the part, by this means the Mucus is pressed out & smeared on the skin & the itching ceases. These glands are different as we see by the different kinds of Mucus that they secrete in the Axilla it is a ranky kind of smelly in the Pudenda of a very peculiar one & both very different from what it is about the Nose, & the Apparatus is very different; at the Nose it comes out of solid holes, but at other parts it comes out of small imperceptible pores; it is different in consistence too, at the Nose it is firm enough to take a worm like appearance & in other places it is very thin. The Vessels of the Skin are very

Cutis Cuticula & Rete mucosum

very numerous & so also we judge the nerves to be, the vessels are seen going into it every where, from the cellular membrane in great abundance is injected, & from its great sensibility we conclude it to be exceedingly nervous, tho' we cannot actually trace the nerves into it. The outer surface of the skin is marked with a number of deep furrows, the meaning of this contrivance is to allow of its bending where it is thick with freedom as in the hand & fingers. The skin of the Rhinoceros is very thick & therefore there are furrows are very remarkable making a number of folds. Besides the large furrows there are smaller ones, the use of them is just the same so that the skin is larger than the surface of the Part to allow of swelling from Heat, frost, Inflammation, or otherwise, therefore when swelled it is even & smoother than when not, & fat People are commonly smoother skinned than lean ones. The skin by means of these furrows is as it were grained, for which reason the best Statuaries in imitating the human skin rather choose the Marble should be unpolished than polished. Malpighi was the ^{first who} observed the Papilla pyramidalis & Villi of the skin, they are most conspicuous on the Palms of the Hand, Soles of the Feet, Glans Penis, & Pijp. on the other parts of the skin they don't appear till the Cuticle & Rete mucosum are removed & to see them any where the skin must be first injected, when they turn out to be exceeding vascular. In the Hands & feet they are planted in regular ridges, not so on the Lips & Glans Penis & every ridge is made by a double Row of Papilla. The Cuticle and Rete

Cutis Cuticula & Rete Mucosum

Rete Mucosum not only cover them, but make sheaths for each Papilla

In Inoculation as it is more practised, the summit of these Velli are just surrounded. The nice sense of Touch is peculiar to the Glans, & Hands depend upon these Velli projecting beyond the rest of the skin, so as to catch the most minute object. The skin itself is every where the Organ of Sensation. The Cuticle & Rete Mucosum are so much alike, that it is better to demonstrate them together.

By blistering or scaling a part, or by letting it pass toward Putrefaction the Cuticle separates from the true skin, & along with it the Rete Mucosum; by this means we can generally tell whether a Child is still born or not, for if it had been dead in the Uterus any time, it will be putrid, & the Cuticle will be separated in many places; In some parts of Animals it is scaly, but whether it is so in the human body is not determin'd, it is hard & inorganic not appearing to have either Nerves or Nerves & is capable of being made very thick by hard Labour, tho we cannot discover the Cuticle & Rete Mucosum to be Vascular, yet the Number of fine Threads discernible between them & the Cutis upon separating them from it, may, for what we know be small Vessels connecting them to it; if these threads are organised, they are the smallest Organs that are demonstrable in the body, & Dr Hunter believes they are the Organs of Respiration. They are both larger than the Part of the body they surround, because they enter into furrows of the Cutis; The black of Blackmoor exists —

Cutis Cuticula & Rete Mucosum

exists in the Rete Mucosum only, in turn it is plain there are two coverings over the Cutis, but it has been doubted whether the Europeans have two, it is pretty evident however that they have both Cuticle & Rete Mucosum. In all of us the Cuticula is white or transparent & the different complexions of Hair, Brown, or Black, depends upon the different colour of the Rete Mucosum. The Marks made by People on their Arms & other parts are in the skin, for if the Cuticle & Rete Mucosum are picked off, the Marks will remain in the Cutis. The hands of Jews are coloured by the Cuticle being dyed like as an horn is. The Cuticle has been thought to be an inspirated Mucus, but what its substance is is not certainly known. The Use of the skin is to give a smooth surface to the body, to be the organ of Absorption, the Cuticle serves to prevent the disagreeableness of too sensible touch, for a Man, not used to work by handling bricks, or any such rough body, has quickly the Cuticle worn away & his hands become very sore, which a Bricklayer, that handles them all day, long has not his hands altered by; It serves by its closeness of texture to keep in the Moisture of the body, for in a dry body where a blister has been applied, & the Cuticle come off, the skin is always dry, but where that is or this is always moist, it confines in the Moisture. The two most common diseases of the skin are the Itch, & the Venereal disease, or Guinea worm. The Itch whether it arises be animalcula is occasioned by a Poison, viz generis, it is infectious, & is certainly cured by brimstone, as the Lues Venerea is by Mercury.

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Cutis, Cuticula & Rete Mucosum, Nails & Hair

Mercury. It has been said that particular that kind of food occasions this disease, but that is false, it most commonly happens among the lower class of people from their Uncleanliness. It has been supposed to be unsafe to cure the Itch, because by so doing bad Effects have been produced, but to cure the Itch is never unsafe. The mischief arises from the Mercury or brimstone exerting an Effluence on the Skin.

The Vena Mediana is very common among the Africans, & only attacks natives of the Country, it breeds in the skin, & when it makes its appearance there is first a little hard spot, which breaking the head of a Worm is discovered & soon, he drawn out by degrees to a very great length, if not hastily done. Nails & Hair are appendages to the skin, they grow as plants do by Protection from the Root, which is very evident by observing the white Spikes in the Nails. The nails are horny & are real elongations of the Vitti as was supposed for they come off from them along with the Cuticle & Rete Mucosum, & are made of the same substance, indeed they appear to be continuations of them. Hair is fibrous, horny, & solid too, its Root are bulbous & fed by vessels, which probably being the matter of which Hair is made. The Bulb contains a Glary fluid, the hair comes off by Putrefaction along with the nails & Cuticle. A Native of four Months has its body covered all over with hair set in regular rows & circles of which considerable quantity is afterwards lost. Hair in some Animals, more particularly the northern Ones, is given for warmth, but in the human Body, this cannot be the case, its principle use seems to be to force us to be clean by entangling

The Nails and Hair

entangling readily with any filth so as to make us wash often

It has been said that the Hair grows after Death, but upon enquiring into this by the exhumation of bodies at different times, there appears to be no foundation for this assertion. The Passions of the Mind are said to have effect upon the Hair, & Cases are related where from fright black Hair in one night time has become white, as this is so well authenticated it is not rashly to be denied. D^r Hunter was told of a Cow that being frightened at water was changed into a white one in twenty four hours. A Disease of the Hair that is which is called Trichopolonia, we are not acquainted with, the most probable account of it is, that it is no more than a scabby head from scratching, which the Poor Poles are much addicted to

The Insensible Perspiration

Section 3^d

Some Physiologists have thought that sweat & perspiration were secreted by different Organs, but they appear to be entirely one & the same thing; Sweat comes on when the body is warm & after exercise, and by relaxation of the Vessels, as after fainting; Perspiration comes out insensibly from the body & continually, it becomes conspicuous by sitting in a Chairist with the Glauves & by holding the hand near a cold piece of glass, for the matter of perspiration will collect on the glass in the form of a fine Dew & increase till it runs down in little streams; In speaking of the mucus we shall call them perspiration sensible, & insensible. That animals throw off water from their bodies sensibly is evident from sweating in warm weather, & that they throw it off insensibly is evident from the water collecting on the Chairist glass in cold weather, when no moisture can be perceived on the skin. We don't know what Hippocrates thought of insensible perspiration; Sanctoires observed it very minutely & found the quantity of it to differ at different times; it passes off by the skin & lungs; we cannot imitate it, as we never can make an injection pass the cuticle; At the same time as the body is emitting it, it is absorbing also, which is proved by applying Mercury to the skin, as it affects the salivary glands, or by applying Guallick & it giving the Urine a brown smell, so that the calculation of the quantity of insensible Perspiration is a given time must be erroneous, on account of the body absorbing at the same time. When we drink a large quantity of watery fluids, we perspire more than when we drink less & in warm

Invisible Perspiration, Calculous Concretions

warm weather we perspire more & sweat easily, so that a smaller quantity of Urine passes by the Kidneys. In cold weather we perspire less & sweat with difficulty, so that more Urine is secreted. Sanctorius in Italy found the Perspiration generally as 10 to 4 of Urine. In France it is not twice the quantity of Urine. Heil in England found it as 8 to 2 of Urine. In Holland it is much the same as in England. In Adalope the Perspiration diminishes, & therefore their skin is dry & itches much, & of course more Urine is secreted, which makes the stone in the Urinary Passages of them so exceedingly distressing, by the frequency of their inclinations to make water they are continually harassed & Calculous Concretions are most commonly formed in the Urinary Passages, & in every part of them, in the Tubuli & Pelvis of the Kidney, in the Uterus, Bladder & Urethra. They resemble stones, so much, that they are called, no doubt in all languages by that name. We shall first consider the Urinary Concretions. The common Idea is, that they are a Deposit of the earthy part of the water, but this is ill founded, for they are formed by Crystallisation, as is the Tartareous crust on the Teeth. Their texture by examining one of the smaller & pointed, or a grain of Gravel with a Magnifying glass, appears plainly, to be that of Crystals. This property of Crystallisation prevails in one constitution more than in another, as is seen by some people continually passing these concretions, & others that never do. Fluids disposed to Crystals go on to Crystallisation quicker from having a Proper surface to fix upon, accordingly in making sugar candy, they suspend pieces of Sticks in the liquor to invite Crystallisation, & when the first Crystal is formed that affords a convenient surface for more to fix

on.

Calculus Concretions

on, and there for more, & so on till a large Mass is formed; So it is in the Urinary Passages, if any thing affords a proper surface a Stone is produced; Some things invite things & some more than others —

Mr John Hunter made a number of experiments to determine what were the most inviting, by putting them into a Pott of smelted Water upon them & letting them remain for a considerable time; he found that Hair was soonest covered over with Crystals — Dr Hunter has a Lock of Hair secured too over, that was taken from a Woman afflicted with the common Symptoms of Stone & likewise another, in both which cases it is most probable that the hair had been pushed thro' the Urethra into the bladder — Hair commonly grows upon the external surface of the body only, it has been found nevertheless in the interior parts, particularly the Ovaria of Women along with a gelatinous fluid where it could not have got to from without, so that it seems these parts have a power of forming, if not hair) a substance very much like it — Stones are generally laminated, therefore cannot be supposed to be formed by deposition, but this may be accounted for by supposing that they are formed by crystallization, & the Laminae are regularly sound for the most part — Dr Ferrius has found from a number of experiments, that the matter of these Crystals is Animal Earth & Animal Mucus, & thence concludes that a Calculus has two Dissolvents, that is, what will dissolve the Earth, & what will dissolve the Mucus — At first, the Mucus for instance will take out the Earth & leave the Mucus soft as it does in a bone — The Mucus may be dissolved by long steeping in Water so that it putrefies, & the Earth will drop from it — The human Calculus is known from

Calcareous Concretions —

from the common Pibble stone by burning it, for it will emit the peculiar smell of animal substance that is burning, whereas the other emits not any. By this means we can certainly detect the Impressions framed by Designing People to extort the Compassion & Charity of good Natured People, pretending to be severely afflicted with stones, that they have passed some which they show; they differ in colour being from almost a jet black to an almost perfect white, commonly they are brownish or yellowish. These stones which are not laminated we call irregular crystallisations; then are two species of laminated stones, the one simple & the other compound; in the simple the laminae are regularly laid round one Center, & every transverse section of them give circles; & compound when in transverse section the circles are not uninterrupted & round but in Goat Scallopswise, yet each circle having the same Center. These kind of circles particularly appear in what is called a Strawberry stone, or that with an uneven surface, whereas the simple has for most part a regular surface. The disposition of the laminae is very evident in the largest intestinal stones of an Horse, all having their Center in the neckless or part first formed, & the simple may in the first formed lamina have been a compound, or the compound a simple, by changing the form of their circles; sometimes there are two centers in one stone, & the circles become elliptical. Generally the crystallisation is equal every where of the stones are pretty much rounded, but some they are unequal from a disposition of the crystallisation to advance

Calcareous Concretions

advances faster on one side than on another, & then they take all manner of forms. After having extracted one stone, to know whether any more remain we are directed to look if the stone has a polished surface, & if it has there is another at least, but this more polished surface is a proof of there being more than one stone, if they are flat surfaces or hollow which are polished, we may pretty certainly conclude that more stones remain. Of the stone lies in the bladder at ease so that the Urine can flow all round it, then it is commonly pretty round, but if by any means it is confined to any part of the bladder, then it is pretty frequently irregular. It may often happen that the stone has a process continued from it into the Urethra, which takes greatly the form of the Prostate Gland. Thus far of Calcareous Concretions in the Urinary passages. Stones are found in the Intestines of many Animals particularly in an Horse especially in its Colon. I have often suspected this & rate the Horse as it is called, they thrust their Arm up the Rectum & draw away the stones, they are laminated, & made of the same substance & in the same manner as the Urinary Concretions; In some Animals they are called Bessars; in them particularly is to be seen the Crystallisations of the circular Lamina shooting from the Center towards the Circumference. The soft Concretions of the Intestines are not Calcareous, but formed of long jagged fibres of Vegetables used for Food, for by burning they do not emit that peculiar smell which the others do; Another of the soft kind is like the Hair Ball formed principally in the Stomach of Calves, & only in such Animals as are hairy. There is no doubt of their being formed by the Animal licking it self & swallowing the Hairs.

Lecture 35th

We begin with the Head, and go downwards omitting the Abdominal Muscles which have been already described. The Scalp is moved by a pair of Muscles called Frontalis & Occipitalis, these two are joined by a Tendon at the Top of the Head, so as to make a Digastric Muscle, & has been called Occipito-Frontalis generally; from its interior part go down some fibres along the Dorsum Cervicæ, called the nuchalis Muscles. The orbicularis palpebrarum is fixed by a Tendon to the Bone of the Nose at the inner Canthus of the Orbit, it not only shuts the Eyelids, but brings also the Skin of the Face towards the Nose. The Reason why the upper Eyelid alone is generally moved in opening & shutting the Eye is, because the Attachment of this Muscle is below the middle of the Eye. The Rectus, lateralis, & Transversalis Navi are properly, as Albinus makes them, parts of the Elevator Labii Superioris Alaque Navi, & of the Depressor Labii Superioris Alaque Navi. The Muscles of the Angles of the Mouth are all placed in a radiated Manner to pull it in a great Number of Directions; Levator Anguli oris drawing it inwards & upwards; the Zygomaticus Major upwards & outwards; the Buccinator drawing it directly outwards or backwards; & the Triangularis with the Addition of the Platisma Myoides directly downwards. The Platisma Myoides is analogous to the Panniculus Carnosus under the Skin of a Dog & other Animals, for below its fibres are fixed to the Skin of the neck; Breast & moves it; above it is fixed by a Fascia into the Angle of the Mouth along with the Triangularis or Depressor Labium Commune, it pulls the Angle of the Mouth downwards, & assists in pulling the Lower Jaw downwards, it lies over the external Jugular Vein & of course is wounded in bleeding in that Vein. The Zygomaticus Minor comes from the Horn of the Orbit near the Zygoma, & joins the Levator Labii Superioris Alaque Navi, it is properly only a portion of that Muscle. The Masseter is a very strong Muscle, its office is to shut the Mouth with great force. The Temporal Muscles are covered with a strong Tendinous Fascia, & arises from

from the outer surface of the Skull, & from the inner surface of the Skull and from the inner surface of the Fascia alio; it is attached to the Coronoid process of the Lower jaw, & pulls that upwards. When Inflammation and Suppuration come on under this Fascia, there are often most violent symptoms, attended with excruciating pain & affection of the Brain, the matter if left loose makes its way into the Mouth. The Reason why this is ^{is} so violent in all inflamed parts that have not room to distend are very painful, & the Fascia not allowing of distension causes therefore that severe pain, when matter is formed too the Fascia confines it, so that it can take no course but that of the Muscle downwards between it and the Fascia, so that it passes under the Jugum down to the Coronoid process, and near it makes an Opening into the Mouth; The Surgeon may however prevent the Matter going so far, by making a puncture with the Lancel thro' the Fascia; when he is certain of the case, & I ought to be done as soon as possible after Matter is formed. The Sterno-mastoidæus arises from the Sternum & forepart of the Clavicle; & is attached to the Mastillary Process of the Temporal Bone & for some considerable way back to the Ridge in the Occipital Bone; it is said by Albucasis to be two Muscles. When both the Sterno-mastoidæus muscles act, they bring the head forwards & downwards; when only one acts it draws the head downwards, & also turns the face towards the opposite Shoulder. When this Muscle on one side grows rigid, it makes what is called the Wryneck, & to cure the Deformity, Surgeons direct the Muscle to be cut thro', but we should be always careful to examine into the State of the other Muscles, for if any one else is rigid the cutting thro' this will have no Effect, the Deformity will still remain.

D^r Hunter was advised with about a lady, who had a Wry Neck. His Opinion was as to whether cutting the Muscle thro' would be of any Service.

The Muscles of the Head. Face &c

twice. Upon examining the case, it proved to be a Salivary of the Muscles on one side of the neck, so that the Muscles on the other side drew the Head towards that Shoulder, and turned the face that way. By a piece of silk fixed to the Shoulder of the Gown on the sound side, and holding the end of it in her mouth, she could keep her head tolerably well in its proper position, she was not therefore a fit subject for the Operation. We should when advised with on this matter inform ourselves of every circumstance, lest after having cut the Muscles, we should be disappointed in removing the Deformity.

The Muscles of the Neck &c
Lecture 36

The Os Hyoides has its Basis situated on the angle formed by the Neck and Head, and its horns run backward on each upper side near its Basis is a Penniform Process from which a Ligament goes to connect it with the Styloid Process; The Ligament is sometimes found ossified.

The upper part of the Wind-Pipe which is much enlarged is called Larynx; it is made up of five Cartilages. The Thyroid or Scutiform Cartilage lies under the Os Hyoides, it makes the Promontory Adam's; the notch in its fore part may be easily felt with the finger, and thereby it may be perceived that this Cartilage goes up under the Os Hyoides in Deglutition; it has two ascending processes connected with the horns of the Os Hyoides, and two descending which are movably connected with the Cricoid Cartilage; under the Thyroid lies the Cricoid, its surface before and behind is divided into two lateral cavities for muscles; the other three are the two Arytenoid Cartilages, and the Epiglottis. Between the Pectoral and Deltoid Muscles runs the Cephalic Vein to enter the Subclavian Trunk. Several Muscles of the Clavicle and Scapula are attached to the Ribs. Asthmatic People raise their shoulders while they breathe, so that these Muscles raise the Ribs higher in Inspiration and enlarge the Chest more. The Subclavian Vessels come out over the first rib under the Clavicle and Subclavius Muscle behind and under the great and little Pectoral Muscles, and run under the short head of the Biceps and Coraco-Brachialis down the arm. In amputating at the joint we must divide the Pectorals, Coraco-Brachialis, and short head of the Biceps, before we can get a view of these vessels with their

The Muscles of the Neck, Breast &c.

their power. In amputating the arm at the joint ~~proceed~~
 Surgeons do not use a Tourniquet, pressure may be made similar
 to that of a Tourniquet by throwing the shoulder upward and
 backward and pressing with the Thumb upon the Vessels over
 the Pit. Each of the several parts of the Cucularis may act
 singly, and either pull the Shoulder upwards downwards or
 backwards. The Trapezius and Latissimus Dorsi D^r Hunter
 calls the Fascia of the Loins, and are two broad Muscles situated
 immediately under the Integuments and covering all the back,
 when these two are removed the Rhomboides appears —

The Muscles of the Back &c.

Lecture 37th

The *Sacro Lumbalis*, *Longissimus Dorsi* and *Semini. Spinalis* are best considered as only one muscle, reaching from the Pelvis all along the back & neck to the head, filling up the cavity between the angles of the Ribs and Spinal Processes of the Vertebra. From the Occipital Ridge upwards is called the Arch of the Skull, & from that downwards the Basis of the Skull. The joint of the lower jaw has a moveable Cartilage within it where the Condyle plays, whether backwards in the cavity, or forwards on the eminence of the Temporal bone. It don't appear to diminish friction, but to vary the motion of the joint, for it moves backwards & forwards along with the Condyle, & lies between it, & the bone, tho' M^r John Hunter observes that Animals whose Condyle plays only in the cavity, & don't vary it's situation, have this moveable Cartilage, so that it's precise use is not ascertained.

The fleshy part of the Tongue is most probably a body composed of little muscles to bring out it's various actions, besides those muscles coming from the neighbouring parts, & the Lingualis. By long practice these motions are determined to a great variety, as we observe by the pronunciations in different languages, so that a native of one country cannot imitate the pronunciation in the language of another, to which he has not been accustomed. When a child grows up, it's not being able to speak don't always depend upon a fault in the Tongue, but is sometimes owing to it's not being able to hear, so that what it has not heard it cannot imitate, which was the case of a Child brought from Ireland to D^r Hunter. It's from imitation alone of what we hear, that makes us begin to speak.

The Pharynx, Palatum, &c &c Fauces, Heart, &c
Lecture 38

The Pharynx makes a sort of Funnel to the Oesophagus, it is muscular Bag which by contracting forces the food downward into the Oesophagus in Deglutition. It is best to consider it as a muscular Bag, not as having many muscles, for they are by no means distinct, except the Stylo-Pharyngeus which draws the Pharynx upwards & backwards. There may be said to be two Palates, the Palatum Ossium or bony Palate & the Palatum Molle of which the Uvula is a principal part. The Palatum Molle hangs as a Valve in the Larynx between the cavity of the internal Nostril & that of the Mouth, it has the Uvula depending from it; when we breathe thro' the Mouth, & do not suffer the Breath to pass thro' the Nose, the Palatum Molle is raised up & pressed against the back part of the Pharynx so as to cut off the communication with the Nostrils; when we breathe thro' the Nose only, then it is pulled down against the Root of the Tongue, & shuts up the passage from the Pharynx to the Mouth. This we can do at pleasure & by looking in a Glass can see the Palatum Molle raised and depressed. In general it hangs so as not to impede the passage of the breath thro' either Mouth or Nostrils. On looking in the Mouth beyond the Uvula, we see the Palatum Molle form two Arches, in which lay the Tongue, the two Arches are Muscles, one is called Palati Pharyngeus, & the other is called by Auliculus the Constrictor Isthmi Faucium. The Diaphragm is hollow towards the Abdomen, proportionally convex towards the Chest, divided by the Spine into a right & left cavity extending on each side considerably more backward than the Spine, it is fleshy except its middle part called Centrum Tendineum, where it is Tendinous, called also by the Ancients Centrum Nervosum. The Heart lies upon the anterior part of the Centrum Tendineum. This large Muscle is attached before to the Sternum, laterally it is attached to the Margin

of the Chest from the seventh to the last Rib, not at the margin exactly, but about an Inch within it, for the *Venae cavae* is attached some little way up within the Chest along its margin, & backwards it is attached to the Vertebrae, & to the Ligament stretched from the last Rib to the Lumbar Vertebra; its middle part makes two *curves*, which run down the fore part of the spine having the *Costa* between them; the *Costa* lying rather on the left side, the right *Curve* is the largest, both are fixed in the Vertebrae Lumborum. The Diaphragm has two *Perforations*, & a slit. Thro' the slit the *Costa* passes & as soon as it has got thro' it, sends off forwards the *Coeliac Artery*, then the *Superior Mesenteric*, & then the *Imagines*, one on each side. The two *Perforations* are in the middle near the spine, thro' the right which is round & in the *Tendinous* part passes the *Vena cava*, thro' the left which is elliptical, & in the fleshy part the *Esophagus* passes. The Reason why the *Vena cava* passes thro' the *Tendinous* part, & the *Esophagus* thro' the fleshy part seems to be this, that the *Tendon* being firm & immovable while the *Diaphragm* acts, the stream of blood should not be impeded, and the *Esophagus* by passing thro' the fleshy part will be contracted at every motion of the *Diaphragm*, so that the *Stomach* when pressed upon by it cannot evacuate its contents upward, the Canal being shut up. The *Diaphragm* in action is brought nearer to an even surface by being pulled lower at the same time that it draws up the Ribs & counteracts the *Abdominal* muscles in pressing on the Intestines, the two lateral parts are what principally move in action, the middle *Tendinous* part is fixed. What the *Curves* do we don't know for they come from the middle part which is not moved. In Repulsion of the *Fetus* of a Child the *Diaphragm* assists, but it has been disputed whether it acts in Vomiting, that it does act in Vomiting is plain; that when it acts & presses on the *Stomach* it shuts up the *Esophagus*.

The Diaphragm, Psoas Muscle &c

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Esophagus so as to oblige the Food to pass into the Guts. nevertheless we find the food passes upwards into the Mouth, but this is while it is not in action; The Process of vomiting seems to be this, we first inspire strongly & whilst the Glottis keeping the Air in, the Diaphragm is then relaxed, & the Abdominal Muscles press out the contents of the Stomach into the lower part of the Esophagus, we then throw the Air out suddenly and so clear the passage. In Inspiration the Diaphragm is active. In Expiration it is inactive. The Quadratus Lumborum makes the hinder part of the Parietes of the Abdomen, & upon it the Kidney lies. The Psoas Muscle is properly only a part of the Levator Ani. Dr Douglas described it as a new Muscle, but many Anatomists before him had viewed it & described it as a part of the Levator. On the interior edge of the great Psoas run the Iliac Vessels. Suppuration happens very commonly about the Loins, the cellular Substance about the Kidney between the Quadratus & Peritoneum inflames & suppurates, Matter is formed & makes what is called a Psoas or Lumbar Abscess. In this case the Matter scarce ever pierces thro' the Loins, but assisted by its own gravity it works down on the Psoas & enters to the Groin following the course of that Muscle & the Psoas Magnus which unite & are inserted into the little Trochanter; at every pressure it works down the inside of the Thigh & goes all the way to the inner condyle of the Femur; if it is not evacuated at the Groin so as to make its way out or be let out, it has made such a large internal Abscess to produce hectic fever & Death, often making the Bones carious & sometimes passing from one side to the other. If the Matter is formed we can generally guess at the nature of the Disease from the preceding Symptoms of inflammation & pain in the Loins; when the Patient in bed turns his foot outwards, it gives him pain in the

Back.

back, but if we turn it for him it does not, but on the contrary eases him, or if he bends his thigh forwards & turns his foot outwards it gives him great pain in the back, but if we bend it for him & turn the foot outwards, it don't hurt him, but on the contrary makes him easier, by this we may be pretty certain that 2/3 parts about 2/3 of the muscles on the forepart of 2/3 of the spine are in a state of Inflammation. When the matter is formed & has passed down to the groin, by putting your finger to the groin & ordering the Patient to cough, we may feel it fluctuate; And were we of the Case, we should make an opening there to discharge it as soon as possible. Dr. Keiliter, and Professor Cloghorn were consulted in the case of a man having matter passing off by the Intestines; they thought it to be a Boon abscess that had made its way into the Intestines & upon examining the body after Death, they found the matter had made a passage from 2/3 of the spine into the Colon. Another Case of this abscess the Dr. saw in Mr. Middleton in a man who lived in Cornhill; matter pointed in the groin which Mr. Middleton discharged by an opening there; a wire Candle was passed from the groin up towards the spine for its whole length. He did well; the success of this cure was owing undoubtedly, to the matter being discharged soon.

Lecture 39

Sometimes there is a little Psoas muscle running along with the great Psoas muscle, but its Tendon never goes farther than the Os of the Pelvis, being always fixed to the Os Pubis near the glans. Mr John Hunter is of Opinion that the Ligament between the Sacrum & the Os is the seat of the inflammation that produces the Psoas Abscess. The great Sciatic Nerve is out of the way of being hurt in an injury of $\frac{1}{2}$ Point; it often happens that from an injury done to the Ligament the whole Limb becomes smaller & weaker; this Mr John Hunter thinks is owing to Sympathy, the whole Limb being affected by consent of parts in consequence of the Ligament's being hurt, & not owing to any Violence sustained by the Nerve particularly. The Fascia of the Thigh is fixed to the spine of the Sacrum, it covers the fore & outer part of the Thigh down to the Knee very strongly, but on the Leg it is so intermixed with cellular Membrane as to be indistinct. It has a muscle fixed to it which arises from the spine of the Sacrum called Membraneous, said to tighten $\frac{1}{2}$ Fascia. Whenever any Matter is perceived under $\frac{1}{2}$ Fascia, it ought to be let out immediately by making a sufficient incision thro' it, for the Matter not being able of its self to make its way outwardly, will insinuate itself between $\frac{1}{2}$ Fascia & $\frac{1}{2}$ neighbouring Muscles & make great Havock. On the sole of $\frac{1}{2}$ Foot is another Fascia, from whence Muscles arise & it strengthens $\frac{1}{2}$ foot by being extended from $\frac{1}{2}$ Heel to $\frac{1}{2}$ Toe. From $\frac{1}{2}$ foot all along to the Groin runs $\frac{1}{2}$ Vena Saphena. It now & then happens after bleeding there arises great inflammation & sometimes suppuration; this was supposed to be caused by a Tendon or Nerve being pricked, but as it most commonly happens that $\frac{1}{2}$ swelling follows bleeding in the Cephalic Vein, & as no principal Tendon or Nerve lies near it, that cannot be the case, & according to Waller

wounds

The Cause of Mischief from Bleeding

8 24

Wounds of Tendons are by no means so consequential as generally imagined. M^r John Hunter thinks $\frac{1}{2}$ Inflammation is owing to $\frac{1}{2}$ exposure of $\frac{1}{2}$ cavity of the Vein; he says that whenever an internal cavity is exposed, Nature sets up an inflammation to destroy it, that if the uniting inflammation arises, $\frac{1}{2}$ sides of the cavity are uniting by the first intention, but if $\frac{1}{2}$ suppurative inflammation arises, then $\frac{1}{2}$ sides of the cavity suppurate, and in both cases $\frac{1}{2}$ surrounding part partakes more or less of $\frac{1}{2}$ inflammation, he supposes there is something in the inner surface of $\frac{1}{2}$ Vein as well as in other internal cavities, that they cannot bear exposure, they are so invariable that when $\frac{1}{2}$ Arm is inflamed after bleeding, it is in consequence of such exposure, the common appearances he says confirm $\frac{1}{2}$ Theory, for very often the Arm is veen inflamed only in the course of the Vein, the Skin having a line of discoloration reaching lengthwise along the Arm; he has often observed the Jugular Vein of an Horse to become inflamed after bleeding, & in one instance particularly, the Vein was inflamed as far as within the Chest, & occasioned $\frac{1}{2}$ Death of $\frac{1}{2}$ Animal. Whenever suppuration happens from this cause, it commonly extends along the wounded Vein. From a wound on $\frac{1}{2}$ foot the Vena Saphena was opened & inflamed all the way up to the Groin, a string of Abscesses were formed which required being laid open, one after another, so that he is of opinion that it is not the wound of a Tendon or Nerve, that occasions these alarming symptoms after Bleeding, but that it is the exposure of the inner surface of the Vein.

Particular Muscles

8 24

Lecture 40th

The Anterior Position of the Scalenes Muscle passes between & Subclavian Artery and Vein, as they pass over the first Rib & Artery is outward & between it & the Brachial Nerves going down from the Arm to the Neck passes the posterior Portion. It is sufficient to know that there are small Muscles between & Spinal and Transverse Processes of the Vertebra without being minute about them. The Iliac Vessel passes under Poupart's Ligament pretty exactly in the middle between the Anterior projecting point of the Spine of the Ilium, and the most projecting part of the Symphysis of the Os Pubis. The Artery on the outside, and Vein on the inside lie upon the united Muscles of Psoas Magnus and Iliacus internus. The Actions of some Muscles are very different according to the different situations of the parts to which they are attached. Thus the Gluteus Medius by reason of its being attached behind and before to the Os Ilium acts both as a Flexor and Extensor of the Thigh; Note, all the fleshy fibres of a Muscle are nearly of the same length. the Pyrisiformis Muscle is divided into an upper & lower Portion by the great Sciatic Nerve perforating it. When we sit directly upright the Sciatic Nerve is not pierced Superior, but when we sit inclining to one side, it is pierced on by the fleshy part, & the Limb by that means is often humbled. The Obturator Internus is called a pennate Muscle, because it has a pennis or Scutulus Muscous on it, inside, where it surpasses over & Os Ichiur, it receives two Muscular portions from & Os Ichiur called Geminii Muscles. The Triceps Femoris is attached to the anterior bony part of & Pelvis from & Os Pubis down almost to the Tuberosity of & Os Ichiur; its anterior part acts as a Flexor, its posterior as an Extensor, & is a strong Adductor of the Thigh. The great Vessels pass down from the Groin between the

Pectineus

Particulars Muscles, and Vessels

8

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Pectineus and Triceps, are covered by the Sartorius, & run down the Thigh between the Triceps and Vastus Internus; all along to below the middle of the Thigh the Veins are before the Triceps, they then pass thro' the Tendon of the Triceps in a slanting direction, & get behind it to pass into the Popliteal Ham & are there called Popliteal; where they perforate the Tendon it is no wonder if a Surgeon meets with a great deal of difficulty in passing a needle round the Artery in Amputation by reason of the toughness of the Tendon & the slanting direction of the Veins thro' it. The Obturator Artery, Vein & Nerve go thro' the Obturator Hole, or Foramen magnum Ischiæ at the superior part. The Tendon of 4 Flexor Muscles of the Leg make the Hamstrings; the outer one is made by the Tendon of one Muscle, namely the Biceps, the inner one is made by the Tendons of four Muscles, viz. the Sartorius (which is the longest Muscle in the body) the Gracilis or Pectus Internus, the Semitendinosus, and the Semimembranosus.

The Muscles of the Leg and Foot

Lecture 41

The Leg may be said to have two Calves, the superficial made by $\frac{1}{2}$ Gastrocnemius muscle, & $\frac{1}{2}$ deeper seated formed by $\frac{1}{2}$ Soleus. In a rupture of $\frac{1}{2}$ Tendo Achillis $\frac{1}{2}$ heel must not only be placed upwards, but $\frac{1}{2}$ Leg must be bent to relax $\frac{1}{2}$ Gastrocnemius muscle. The Plantaris is very small; its fleshy part is very short, there is something very singular in $\frac{1}{2}$ Tendon of this muscle, it is very long & slender, & is not attached to $\frac{1}{2}$ Os Calcis like $\frac{1}{2}$ Tendo Achillis, but is lost in $\frac{1}{2}$ Fat & Cellular Membrane before it reaches that bone, it is all the way distinct from the Tendo Achillis, so that $\frac{1}{2}$ Action directed by this Tendon seems to be distinct from that of $\frac{1}{2}$ Tendo Achillis, and $\frac{1}{2}$ ^{trachea} muscles, for it is so small that it bears only an extension of $\frac{1}{2}$ foot, the Tendo Achillis would have done as well without it as with it. The great vessels, passing from $\frac{1}{2}$ Poples run between the two Condyles of $\frac{1}{2}$ Femur, and the two heads of $\frac{1}{2}$ Gastrocnemius $\frac{1}{2}$ Passes on $\frac{1}{2}$ inside of $\frac{1}{2}$ Plantaris & go down to the back part of $\frac{1}{2}$ Leg between the muscles making $\frac{1}{2}$ Tendo Achillis & the deeper seated one. The Little Toe has commonly no Tendon from the Extensor Digitorum Pedis Brevis. A Portion of flesh often goes from the Extensor Digitorum Pedis Longus to the Metatarsal bone of $\frac{1}{2}$ Little Toe, which is called by Wiclow the Little Princess. The Extensor Digitorum Pedis brevis has its Tendon perforated to admit $\frac{1}{2}$ Tendons of the Extensor Digitorum Longus to pass thro' them; this muscle is therefore called Perforatus, from its being more external than the Extensor longus in $\frac{1}{2}$ Foot it is called Sublimis, & that is called Profundus; it is also called Flexor Secundi Internodii Digitorum Pedis. The Tendon of $\frac{1}{2}$ Flexor longus Digitorum Pedis in $\frac{1}{2}$ Sole of the foot is joined by an accessory piece of Muscular flesh from $\frac{1}{2}$ Os Calcis called Caro Quadrata. From $\frac{1}{2}$ four Tendons of the Extensor Digitorum Pedis longus in the sole of $\frac{1}{2}$ foot a junction of the four Lumbricales muscles so named because they are like Worms.

Lecture 42

The *Saculi Mucosi* are full of a kind of Synovia; which is supposed to facilitate the motion of a muscle in its sheath of a bone. The *Torus Minor* is seldom found to be a distinct muscle, but part of the *Infra-Spinatus*. The *Annular Ligament* at its wrist seems to be a continuation of its *Tendinous Fascia*. The *Tendon* of its long head of its *Biceps Volaris* passes thro' its point & is washed by its Synovia; except the *Popliteus*, there is no other instance in its body of this kind. Besides its *Tendon* sent by this muscle to be attached to its *Radius* there is a broad thin one, which goes from it to the *Fascia* of its fore arm supposed to occasion inflammation, & symptoms when pinched in bleeding, but Mr. John Hunter's observations shew that the mischief depends upon its cavity of its thin being pinched & deprived. Dr. Hunter thinks that its muscle called *Spinator Radii Longus* is not a *Supinator* but a *Flexor* of its forearm only, for he says that in his horn he can plainly feel this muscle swell in bending but in its *Supination* of it he can't, & if it can be put prone, by pulling this muscle it is not said *Supine*, but its *Arm* is bent. The *Flexors* of its *Carpus* all come from its inner *Condyle* of the *Humerus*, & the *Extensors* of its *Carpus* all come from its outer *Condyle*. The *Extensor Carpi Radialis* is called also *Bicaris* because it has two *Tendons* or *Horns* at its lower end. The *Flexors* & *Extensors* of its *Carpus* can act together; when its *Radial* ones act together they draw its hand inward & sideways, when the *Ulnar* ones act they draw its hand outward & sideways. When its hand is placed vertically, its *Flexors* & *Extensors* appear to go obliquely from the *Condyles* to its *Carpus*, but if it be placed in the middle state between *Pronation* & *Supination*, they then appear to take a direct course. The *Palmaris longus* furnishes its *Fascia* in the *Palm* of the hand. This muscle is sometimes wanting & then its *Fascia* arises from its *Annular Ligament* of its *Carpus*. The use of this *Fascia* is to guard its *Palm* of the hand.

The Fascia of the Arm & Hand, Capsular Ligament of $\frac{1}{2}$ Shoulder Joint. 24
Hand from injury, particularly, when we fall flat on it. The Fascia of the
Arm & thigh seem to prevent $\frac{1}{2}$ Muscles from growing loose from $\frac{1}{2}$ Cellular
Membrane by their frequent action; they appear also to give strength to their
action, for Tumblers who use great Muscular Action bind their Arms & Legs
with Ribbands, & Garters, & Harwest People find great Relief by binding
something round their body. The Swelling under $\frac{1}{2}$ Thumb on the
inside of $\frac{1}{2}$ hand is called The nux from a Greek Word signifying sticking,
as being the part we strike with; that opposite to it under the little
finger is called Hypothenar. Bones have no limb endued with such
a number of fine motions as our Arm & Hand neither have they any
Capsule. The Capsular Ligament of $\frac{1}{2}$ Shoulder Joint is very thin and
the Joint is more formed for Motion than for Strength, but $\frac{1}{2}$ Capsular
Ligament is made stronger by being embraced by $\frac{1}{2}$ Tendons of several
Muscles, on the fore part tho' it is not embraced by any Tendon & consequ-
ently is weaker there, for this reason it is that in a luxation we find the
Head of $\frac{1}{2}$ Bone almost always protruded under the neck of the
Scapula into the hollow of $\frac{1}{2}$ Axilla. It is most probable that the
Capsular Ligament is torn in a Luxation & that when there is no possi-
bility of making Reduction, the head of $\frac{1}{2}$ Bone is received into the
Laceration like a Button into a Button Hole. What seems to shew
that it is lacerated is, by attending to the manner in which $\frac{1}{2}$ Bone passed
out, & making Extension accordingly, we more easily reduce it.

We shall now introduce some Observations of Mr John Hunter's
on simple and compound Fractures. A Simple Fracture commonly
heals well, & a Compound One but seldom, why this difference happens
is by him accounted for from Inflammation; his Idea of Inflammation
is this:

Observations on Fractures

is this; Inflammation is always in consequence of irritation either from a wound as from a cutting or other instrument, from Contusion as the gout, from some specific as a Venereal Disease or from exposure, which is a most powerful & common cause in Fractures; from Exposure simply, & not from exposure to Air, because the Air in Implysema does not stimulate it, cavities it insinuates itself into; and he finds that in an Eagle there is a communication between the Lungs & Bones of the Wings, so that Air passes from a Lung into them without doubt to give Levity to Flight; When a cavity is exposed it is irritated by nature sets up an Inflammation to shut up that cavity. If the sides of the exposed cavity are brought together they are united by what he calls the adhesive inflammation, by the living principle of a blood, but if not brought together, then the suppurative inflammation takes place. Mr John Hunter is of opinion that a blood is like as Goben and Harvey thought. If a muscle be taken out of a body & pinched it will contract, its sensibility remaining so as to be susceptible of irritation, this is what he calls the Life of a muscle. If the blood gets between the divided parts, it unites them by its living principle; We see that two pieces of wood brought together unite as in Grafting; and Mr John Hunter has cut a Testicle out of a Cock, & placed them in a belly of a Hen so as to grow there to a Sperm, & by injecting a Vessel of a River he also injected the Testicle, growing to it by its Vessels. He observes that Blood has a power of itself of becoming Vascular, for by examining a Turkey about three months after amputation, he found that the blood which had coagulated at a end of a Gibon, had Vessels formed by itself in itself, so that it is as easy to conceive the fluid blood

On the Living Principles of the Blood

blood to be alive as it is to conceive the solid body to be so. The blood while it remains alive cannot be heated, for if a man who has been sitting close to a very hot fire be bled, and another man be bled who has been sitting in a very cold room, their blood will be of an equal degree of heat; nor can it be cooled, for he found that by putting a fish in water and by endeavouring to cool the water with solution of sal ammoniac so as to purge it, all the water was frozen except for a small space round the fish, so that blood cannot be heated or cooled beyond a certain point by reason of its living principle being destroyed. The blood coagulates by being stimulated and coagulates more readily as it is more alive, by being more susceptible of stimulus. Blood drawn from a healthy man and thus stimulated by being exposed, coagulates sooner than blood drawn from an unhealthy man. At the same time in simple fractures the adhesive inflammation more commonly takes place; the parts are united by its living principle of blood, the blood forms a vascular texture between the divided parts, which at length ossifies and unites the bones strongly, this being in considerable quantity is the reason why the callus is always larger than the bone itself. And this doctrine does not appear so extraordinary for Dr Hunter shews a Patella, in which the very first sign of ossification is a branching artery. In compound fractures a cavity is made which is exposed by means of a wound thro' the skin; in this case the blood parts with its living principle, nature raises the suppurative inflammation, and the parts do not unite as in the simple fracture owing to its exposure; and Dr Hunter shews that

Observations on Fractures

that a simple fracture may in its consequences become a compound one, the blood which should unite the parts loosing its living principle, the same thing happening afterwards, as in the compound Fracture he therefore advises us to cover the wound close in a compound fracture with a piece of sticking plaster to prevent exposure of the blood & deprivation of its living principle as a practice attended with great success. In this manner Mr John Hunter accounts for there being so material a difference between the event of a simple & that of a compound fracture, the one almost always doing well, the other but seldom.

The Muscles & Tendons of the Fingers

Lecture 43

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Cross Bands or ^{Transverse} Intersections are thrown from one Tendon of a common Extensor of the Fingers to another, so that by moving one finger we move another. The Tendon of a Extensor Proprius Indicis or Indicatus passes under a same Annular Ligament with the common Extensor, & goes with it's Tendon to the first bone of a fore finger, & with it spreads a Fascia all over a back of the finger as a Tendons do in the fingers. As Extension of a finger requires but little force, the Extensor Muscles are therefore small, but in Flexion great force is required to apply the fingers to resisting bodies, & therefore a Flexors are strong. The edges of a Perforatus at the 1st joint so as to enclose the Tendon of a Perforans in a Sheath. The Tendons of the Flexors as they pass along the inside of the Bones of a finger are bound down by Annular Ligaments, three in each finger which contain Synovia for lubricating the Tendons; the first is a narrow Annular Ligament stretched over them as they pass the first joint, another broader on a first bone & another on a second bone. Except then the first, the joints are left free from annular Ligaments & a Flexion should be impeded, & when the finger is bent a ends of a Annular Ligaments come close together upon the joint. This the two heads of a Abductor Indicis in the Angle made by the end of the Metacarpal bone of a fore finger and a end of a first bone of the Thumb the Radial Artery runs, the artery of the Pulse in Medians. As in the foot, the four Lumbricals are produced from a Tendons of the Profundus or Superficialis in the Palm of a hand. The two first Interossei externi join the Lumbricals & go with them to the side of the first and second finger next the Thumb. The other Interossei externi goes to a side of a ^{ring} finger next a little finger along with a Lumbricals. The Interossei Interni

The Muscles & Tendons of the Fingers

Intend go to 2 sides of the finger, in each interosseous space there are two, *primus & secundus*. *Interosseus Internus primus* goes to that side of 2 finger next the little finger; *Secundus* goes to the finger on 2 side next the Thumb. In Describing 2 Muscles all minute divisions are avoided; it being only necessary to describe the same Tracts as one and not as many Muscles.

The Joints

In the joint of 2 Clavicle with the Sternum there is a moveable Cartilage as in the joint of the Jaw; the Use of this Cartilage is to adapt itself to the surface of 2 bones in Motion & make a variety of Socket. The joint of 2 Shoulder is most frequently dislocated of any other joint; the Capsular Ligament independent of 2 Tendon that cover it, is very thin and weak, thinned & weakened before, so that the head of 2 bone when dislocated commonly lies under 2 Scapula. The Tendon of the long head of the Biceps passes thro' the joint in a Channel made in the head of 2 Os Humeri to receive it, it is washed by the Synovia; it is supposed that in some dislocations of 2 joint this Tendon is forced out of its Channel and sides, but this cannot happen unless there are very great lacerations indeed. This joint is an instance against 2 opinion of that body which is found in many joints being the glandular Apparatus for separating the Synovia, for this joint is without it, & is nevertheless well supplied with Synovia. It is nothing but a piece of Fat lodged in a cavity which 2 body had to spare, as is the Tendon in 2 Bone; And, *Acetabulum Scapulae* & 2 head of the Os Humeri being perfectly smooth without any cavity is the reason why this joint contains no body of Fat. At the Elbow joint the Capsular Ligament is very weak forwards & backwards.

The joints &c

and backwards: in a cavity before there is a piece of fat, & in a cavity on y^e back part there is a piece of fat also. In this joint particularly there can be no Dislocation without Laceration of y^e Capsular Ligament, for on each side it is scarce a line's breadth reaching from one bone to the other. The joint of y^e Wrist is made by three bones the Carphoides, Lunate & a bit of y^e Cuneiform bone. These move entirely upon y^e Radius, y^e Ulna has no connection with y^e joint all, it is articulated with the side of the Radius alone, & rotates upon it in a Capsular Ligament distinct from that of the joint of the Wrist. The Bones of the Carpus have considerable motion on each other. There is nothing particular in the joints of the fingers, except the first of the Thumb where there are two Sesamoid bones connected to y^e second bone of y^e finger exactly what two little Patellae would be. The joints of y^e Vertebrae have already been spoken of in the description of y^e Spine; each bone has a cartilaginous surface united round the sides by strong Ligamentous bones. The joint between the Sacrum & Ilium is very fixed, each bone has a cartilaginous surface, which do not make a cavity between them, but have strong threads passing from y^e one & entering into y^e substance of the other. The Foramen Magnum Ischii is covered with a Ligament stretched all round it to give attachment to Muscles like as a bone does; It is said that a Hernia of y^e bladder & Intestines may happen thro' this foramen, but if that be true (which however does not appear so) it is out of the Reach of Surgery. for if there should be a structure the disease would be very deep being covered by the Pectineus, & if an incision is made thro' the Ligament the Obturator Artery will be wounded & the Hemorrhage prove fatal. Under the United Tendons of the Psoas Magnus & Iliacus Internus where they play upon y^e bone there is a sacculus mucous to allow y^e Muscles to slide easily to & from.

The joint

The joints &c

The joint of the Hip admits of a great deal of motion besides the capsular Ligament there is in its inner part of this a Ligament which connects the head of the Femur to the bottom of the Acetabulum, it is called the suspensory Ligament, but improperly for it does not suspend the thigh bone, as will appear to any one at the slightest view. It is so loose that when the capsular Ligament is separated all around, it will allow the head of the Femur to be drawn with ease over the Rim of the Acetabulum; towards the Foramen Ischiaticum there is a want of the bony rim, this is supplied by a cartilaginous ring.

Dr Hunter thinks the Reason why the Acetabulum is made of cartilage rather than bone in this part is to give way to the head of the Femur, & adapt the socket to it, & when not pressed on by the head, is compressed on by the muscles & be thus adapted to the bone. within the socket at its bottom is a piece of fat. The capsular Ligament is not fixed round the head of the Femur, but goes down across the neck of the Bone, so that it is loose to allow of free rotation. It appears pretty evident that the head cannot possibly be dislocated without previous laceration of the capsular Ligament. At the Knee joint the capsular Ligament is very loose on its fore part to allow of bending. In collections of matter within the joint the Patella is raised up, & on each side below it there is as it were a Bag of fluid, which is a common appearance in a white swelling. Between the Ligament of the Patella & the Tibia there is a Sacculus mucosus in which there is often a collection of fluid not communicating with the joint. The great strength of this joint is the Croch Ligaments between the two Condyles, these being placed behind prevent the leg from going farther than to a straight line with the thigh. The two Condyles of the Femur

The joints &c

Tendons do not play on the cartilaginous surface of $\frac{1}{2}$ Tibia, but on two moveable flat semi-lunar cartilages. The use of these cartilages is to make variable sockets in figure & situation for the Condyles, within this joint is a considerable quantity of fat & by cutting thro' the Ligament of the Patella near that bone, $\frac{1}{2}$ tibia does not immediately enter the cavity of the joint, but goes into a Bed of Fat. In the joint between the leg & the foot there is nothing but what is common to other ligamentous joints. The capsular ligament is loose before & behind, but on the sides it is very tight and here must be ruptured before Dislocation can happen. In the other joints of $\frac{1}{2}$ Foot there is nothing material, only that there are two sesamoid bones connected to the first bone of $\frac{1}{2}$ great Toe, which makes a groove for $\frac{1}{2}$ Flexor Tendon to lie in, & as in the Thumb they serve the office of Patella. The Tendon of the Peroneus longus passes thro' a sheath on the outside of $\frac{1}{2}$ Foot, in it's passage to the underside of $\frac{1}{2}$ foot this sheath serves to bind down $\frac{1}{2}$ Tendon & prevent it's slipping, it contains a small quantity of Synovia to make the Tendon slide easy. The other Tendons of $\frac{1}{2}$ foot are tied down by Annular Ligaments to keep them in their proper place.

General Figure, Situation, & Connection of the Viscera
Lecture 4th

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To understand of Viscera better it is necessary to give a general View of their Figure Situation & Connection. The Thorax & Abdomen are divided by the thin Muscular partition of Diaphragm; their cavities are both perfectly filled by the Viscera, so that except in an unnatural state, there is no cavity not filled up. In considering what Viscer is affected, when the patient shews us a place of his pain, we must remember that of Viscera ascend & descend, or go to one side in a different position of the body being higher in laying along, lower in sitting or standing, & to one side when we lean to one side; & to know whether of lungs are wounded or any other Viscer; when a Man is run thro' the body with a sword, we must enquire whether it was at a time of Inspiration or Expiration for in these Actions they will be higher or lower as the Diaphragm is elevated or Depressed & we must enquire whether of Stomach was empty or full at the time, for when it is full it will be much lower in the abdomen than when empty, & in pregnant Women a gravid Uterus rising up must necessarily alter the Situation of all of other Viscera, so that an enlarged Liver may extend down to the Os Shion. The Thorax is entirely surrounded by Bones. It is divided into of Anterior part or Sternum, the two lateral parts of of Posterior part; This division is all that is necessary in of Thorax, making an allowance for the rising & falling of of Ribs in Inspiration & Expiration; But in the abdomen it is different, there is a very large space without any bone at all. Anatomists have therefore divided it in so many Regions for of same reason that Astronomers have divided The Heavens into Regions; The Abdomen reaches from the Diaphragm down to the Pelvis

The Abdomen, Thorax &c

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Pelvis if is there divided; conceive a line to be drawn across the body about one half way down to the margin of $\frac{1}{2}$ Chest, & midway between this $\frac{1}{2}$ have line again another line to be drawn across $\frac{1}{2}$ body, all the interior part of $\frac{1}{2}$ division above the last imaginary line is called the Epigastric Region, and the two lateral parts are called $\frac{1}{2}$ right & left Hypochondriac. The Epigastric Region is a triangular space bounded by the edge of $\frac{1}{2}$ Pelvis, the highest part of it is called *Umbilicus Cordis* or pit of $\frac{1}{2}$ Stomach; this division anteriorly, & for some little way laterally, at its upper part is thorax, the posterior, superior, and inferior part is all abdomen. Suppose a line drawn across $\frac{1}{2}$ an equal distance below $\frac{1}{2}$ have with the other, all this space included between these two imaginary lines is entirely Abdominal, & is called the Umbilical Region, & its lateral parts we choose to call $\frac{1}{2}$ Flanks. The next division is of all $\frac{1}{2}$ Abdomen that is below $\frac{1}{2}$ last line; it is a triangular space made by the imaginary above, & the sloping bottom of $\frac{1}{2}$ Pelvis below, & called $\frac{1}{2}$ Hypogastric Region, the very lowest part of it is called the Region of $\frac{1}{2}$ Pubes. The upper end of $\frac{1}{2}$ Os Sacrum is immediately opposite to this last line; this Region comprehends $\frac{1}{2}$ whole cavity of $\frac{1}{2}$ Pelvis. We shall first consider the Thorax in a general way. The Pleura adheres on its outside to the Ribs and Intercostal Muscles by cellular Membrane; on its outside it is closely in contact with the lungs. It has been said, that there is always a quantity of Air in $\frac{1}{2}$ cavity of the Thorax, but it is very plain that there is no Air, for the pleura every where touches the surface of the Lungs so as to leave no space unfill'd by them, & in letting out water from $\frac{1}{2}$ Chest no Bubbles arise. If we immerse $\frac{1}{2}$ body under water, & open the Chest, no Bubbles will be seen to arise thro' the water.

water as it fills the cavity; upon opening the right & left side of the Thorax, it appears plainly that they make two cavities, one on each side not communicating, for between them is a Mediastinum made by the doubling of the Pleura; is very narrow. By cutting thro' the Breast bone between the last bone of σ Sternum, & σ Xiphoid Cartilage, where σ Cartilage of σ last true Rib is inserted, we cut upon σ lower part of the Mediastinum without going into the cavity of σ Abdomen. The Pleura is a reflected membrane, that part of it attached to σ Sternum is called the Mediastinum, from the Sternum conceiv'd running upwards & backwards over σ Pericardium covering σ outer Surface of σ Lungs, the upper side of the Diaphragm, the Spine and the Ribs, uniting at the back part of σ Thorax; this doubling of the Pleura at the back of σ Thorax Dr Hunter calls σ posterior Mediastinum.

The old Anatomists not understanding σ Nature of σ reflected Membranes, have talk'd of σ cavity of σ Mediastinum, of trepanning the Sternum to let out fluid from σ cavity, but they had not σ least ground for saying so, for the double Pleura is so closely united as to appear but one membrane. The Pleura gives a smooth surface to σ containing σ contained fluids of σ Thorax; it is one & same membrane reflected over them, so that the water of σ Hydrope Pectoris can touch nothing but Pleura. Behind the Lungs the Pleura of σ right & left side meeting make a compleat partition between σ right & left cavity preventing all communication with each other; this partition is thicker here than at the Sternum; within it the Aorta Descends into the Belly, & the Diaphragm; the Aorta to σ left of σ Oesophagus, & on σ right side of σ Oesophagus runs σ Vena Arteria, all these lie in cellular Membrane between σ reflected Pleura. The Pericardium is tied

The Pleura and Lung

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is tied to the sternum by $\frac{1}{2}$ Mediastinum, the lungs are connected on their inside to $\frac{1}{2}$ Pericardium & to $\frac{1}{2}$ spine backward, by $\frac{1}{2}$ prolesion. Mediastinum. The middle part of $\frac{1}{2}$ Thorax (contents are so bound down by $\frac{1}{2}$ Sternum, Diaphragm & Spine, that they have but little or no motion. The lungs naturally play upon $\frac{1}{2}$ Pleura (or pleura upon pleura for $\frac{1}{2}$ Lung is covered with it) but in disease, in inflammation for instance, there is often a gluesy substance thrown out betwixt them which gradually goes on vascular & $\frac{1}{2}$ vessels generally run directly from one to the other, the lungs & $\frac{1}{2}$ Pleura are thus united by a vascular substance similar to cellular membrane, which by $\frac{1}{2}$ motion of $\frac{1}{2}$ Lungs & $\frac{1}{2}$ Pleura is drawn out to a small length like a Ligament. These adhesions are very often numerous. The Lung (for one speaking of it on one side we shall call it Lung, & in speaking of both sides in general we shall call them Lungs) lies naturally loose in each cavity, except at $\frac{1}{2}$ middle of inside where it is connected to the pericardium, this part is called the Root of $\frac{1}{2}$ Lung & is the Center of Ramification; A branch of $\frac{1}{2}$ Trachea Arteria, $\frac{1}{2}$ great pulmonary Artery, & a pair of pulmonary Veins enter it here, every where else it is unconnected touching however $\frac{1}{2}$ contained parts, the Pericardium, Diaphragm, Ribs, & spine, Sternum & Mediastinum. The Diaphragm is convex above toward $\frac{1}{2}$ Thorax, below toward $\frac{1}{2}$ Abdomen it is concave, in Expiration it moves up & drives $\frac{1}{2}$ Air out of $\frac{1}{2}$ Lungs, in Inspiration it moves down, enlarges the Cavity of $\frac{1}{2}$ Chest & $\frac{1}{2}$ lies beside the Lungs. Water collected in $\frac{1}{2}$ Pleura makes $\frac{1}{2}$ Dropsy of the Chest, it is a common disease, but we can seldom or ever say absolutely that $\frac{1}{2}$ disease is present, because $\frac{1}{2}$ same symptoms may arise

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may arise from other causes. My reason of $\frac{1}{2}$ Mediastinum there may be a collection of fluid on one side of $\frac{1}{2}$ Chest; if not on the other; when there is a fluid it cannot be felt by $\frac{1}{2}$ fluctuation as in $\frac{1}{2}$ abdomen, because $\frac{1}{2}$ Pleura is every where & always tight between $\frac{1}{2}$ Piths. Water cannot get out of $\frac{1}{2}$ Chest into $\frac{1}{2}$ Cellular Membrane of $\frac{1}{2}$ Lungs, because the Pleura every where covers & containing & contained parts. The Mediastinum may serve & purpose of a Ligament to $\frac{1}{2}$ Pericardium to keep $\frac{1}{2}$ heart in its place, & to make a double cavity in the Thorax. The advantage of a double cavity is evident, for when one cavity is perforated, it happens that when the Patient is attempting to breathe, the Lung of that side collapses in consequence of $\frac{1}{2}$ air rushing thro' $\frac{1}{2}$ wound, & destroying $\frac{1}{2}$ Vacuum within, but on $\frac{1}{2}$ other side Respiration is carried on uninterruptedly.

The fluid in its pericardium lies upon $\frac{1}{2}$ Diaphragm immediately under $\frac{1}{2}$ Sternum & Mediastinum. From accumulation of fat about the Heart Respiration is often performed with difficulty, especially if excessive be used; in A young lady very corpulent whose month of lying in was up; upon any quick motion had such a difficulty of Respiration come on frequently as to endanger suffocation, & on one of these fits she died. Mr Middleton opened her body, & found $\frac{1}{2}$ Heart surrounded with a lump of fat. The fat in $\frac{1}{2}$ Abdomen had pushed $\frac{1}{2}$ Diaphragm up so as to push $\frac{1}{2}$ Heart & Lungs into $\frac{1}{2}$ very upper part of $\frac{1}{2}$ Chest, and thereby disturbing $\frac{1}{2}$ circulation was $\frac{1}{2}$ cause of her death. Similar to this case was that of $\frac{1}{2}$ late Lord Pembroke, who died after harshly stooping to reach $\frac{1}{2}$ Poker to stir $\frac{1}{2}$ fire, his Death too was occasioned by fat

by fat. The lungs in $\frac{1}{2}$ tallest person have never any fat about them. The Heart lies very nearly in $\frac{1}{2}$ middle of $\frac{1}{2}$ body, immediately behind $\frac{1}{2}$ second bone of $\frac{1}{2}$ Sternum (very little more to $\frac{1}{2}$ left than the right side) that is from the connection of $\frac{1}{2}$ second Rib down to the seventh enclosed in the Pericardium, which appears of greater bulk upwards where it is fastened to $\frac{1}{2}$ great Vessels, it touches $\frac{1}{2}$ Pericardium every where so that there is no empty space between them. The Pericardium always contains a little water. Internally it is a smooth polished membrane which is reflected over $\frac{1}{2}$ heart, so that the Liquor Pericardii touches only this membrane & cannot escape out of it, the liquor is naturally colourless as may be seen by opening a body just dead, but after $\frac{1}{2}$ body has for some time $\frac{1}{2}$ liquor becomes bloody, by $\frac{1}{2}$ blood transuding to it. The liquor found in most bodies is only partly coagulated by heat, $\frac{1}{2}$ greatest part of it remains fluid. All $\frac{1}{2}$ Anterior part of the heart is loose, so is $\frac{1}{2}$ lower part which makes a flat surface for $\frac{1}{2}$ Diaphragm, but behind it is fixed by $\frac{1}{2}$ great Vessels to $\frac{1}{2}$ Pericardium, it lies rather transversely across the body, it's flat sides resting on $\frac{1}{2}$ Diaphragm from $\frac{1}{2}$ Basis to $\frac{1}{2}$ Apex, the apex points towards the left side; $\frac{1}{2}$ internal membrane of the Pericardium is reflected entirely over $\frac{1}{2}$ Heart, which has given rise to a Conundrum or Question, whether does $\frac{1}{2}$ heart lie within or without the Pericardium. The Pericardium is connected anteriorly to the Mediastinum, below to the Diaphragm, behind & above to the great Vessels. The Use of $\frac{1}{2}$ Pericardium is to enclose $\frac{1}{2}$ Heart, but this is not the only Use it serves, for $\frac{1}{2}$ Pleura would have done this as well. Nature has given it to fix $\frac{1}{2}$ Heart in $\frac{1}{2}$ body, so that it might keep it steady in its motion, & prevent $\frac{1}{2}$ Vessels being twisted by its getting
out of

The Pericardium, & Peritoneum.

out of this place, for it is fixed to the Mediastinum before, below & laterally to the Diaphragm & behind to the Spine. When the Diaphragm moves down in deep Inspiration, it pulls the Pericardium, but so as not sensibly to affect the Vessels passing thro' it from the heart, y^d if we make a straining effort to Inspiration when the body is upright, the pulse in the left wrist ceases to be felt; the left subclavian Artery goes off in a straighter course from the Aorta than the others, & when the Pericardium is pulled down by the Diaphragm, this Artery is stretched & tightened so as to give no sensible pulsation along its Arm. It has been said, that Hedge-hog has no Pericardium, but Dr Hunter has dissected an Animal & finds that it has. Sometimes the Pericardium is found to have contracted adhesions to the heart, now & then so unusually, that some bodies have been suspected to have wanted a pericardium, but it is never wanting tho' it is sometimes firmly & entirely adhering to the heart, the reason why this Adhesion is not so commonly met with as that between the Lungs & Pleura is because of the continual Motion of the heart, & because inflammation here will soon prove fatal. So much for the Thorax & its contents in a general way. The Peritoneum covers & contains & containing parts of the Abdomen. Three Ligaments are availed to the Abdomen, which appear by risings of the Peritoneum, the upper Umbilical Ligament, which was a Vein in the Fetus, coming in at the Navel & running up to the Liver at the great f^ossum before; & from the Navel downwards runs one each side, which were the Umbilical Arteries, going to the internal Iliac Arteries, & between these sometimes appears what was the Urachis from the bladder in the Fetus. We must make a little Allowance for the Viscera being somewhat higher when the body is supine. Under the Scrobiculum Cordis in the right Hypochondrium & Epigastria

The Peritoneum &c

Epigastric Region lies & Liver, the stomach is covered by it except a little of its lower part. The Spleen depends from its lower part of its stomach chiefly, and as it goes down & flexure of the Colon adheres to it inside, its lower edge is down in the cavity of its Pelvis, it covers all its intestines before. The small intestines are fixed to the Loins by the Mesentery. The Colon is fixed to the Loins by what is called Mesocolon. The Rectum is fixed to the Os Sacrum & Os Coccygis by Cellular Membrane, and is commonly surrounded in its Pelvis by a great quantity of fat. The small intestines possess its greatest part of its general cavity of the Abdomen, & fill the Pelvis. When the Rectum or lower end of its Colon is full of hard Faeces, as it sometimes is, we can feel them in a thin body lying on its back, by pressing with its hand above the Os Pubis, towards the lower part of its Spine & Os Sacrum, the Peritoneum envelops the abdominal Viscera twice; once loosely by lining its abdominal cavity & once closely by being reflected over its Viscera, & making their external coat, so that the water collected in its Abdomen that makes the Ascites, touches nothing but Peritoneum and cannot get out.

The Thorax, neck &c

Lecture 45

We shall go again over the Thorax making some alteration from what was said before. The two Pleurae that make up Mediastinum at the upper part fly off & make a triangular space between them by their dividing from one another; In this space the Thyroid gland in its situation is lodged before great Vessels in its upper part of it Pericardium partly in neck, this gland wastes in the adult & the space contains only cellular Membrane. The Vena Cava Superiori within, but the Vena Cava Inferior is without it, they go the right Auricle of Heart, the Aorta lies to the left of them & goes to the left Ventricle, Pulmonary Artery lies to the left of the Aorta & backwards, goes to the right Ventricle; this bunch of great Vessels is what lies between the two Lobes of the Lungs at its Superior part of Pericardium partly within & partly without. In the Angle before, made by the head of Neck lies its Basis of the Hyoides, below it is its Promontory, below this the Cricoid Cartilage is placed, & from the Cricoid Cartilage lies the Thyroid or Bronchial gland a little way down the Trachea Arteria, anteriorly where the great gland lies upon the Trachea Arteria it is small, & runs backward, on each side lying upwards & downwards & is larger & broader & lies directly upon the Carotid Artery, jugular Vein, & Paraglossa, these lie upon the Vertebrae, for a Suture has this gland continued to the Thyroid, so that they both seem to be but one; sometimes it is enlarged & makes the Guttar Tumescens, this gland is particularly large in Women when we perform Tracheotomy (which is commonly done by opening the Trachea under the Cricoid Cartilage between it & the first ring) in a short neck particularly in Women, & when the gland is large we necessarily

necessarily cut thro the gland & divide the Veins, so that if Hemorrhage is very troublesome, it is exceedingly Vascular & is called a gland, but whether or no it is a glandular body, we are not certain. Aneurisms were often supposed to happen in the Neck to Women from their Violent straining in Child birth, they were often observed to have a Tumour with pulsation of the forepart of the Neck, & these Cases were adjudged to be Aneurisms of the Carotid Artery; but this was a Mistake, for the Gland is very often enlarged especially in young Women & makes a Tumour in the Neck & being hardened it takes a strong stroke from the Artery, so as to be mistaken for an Aneurism. To distinguish this disease from an Aneurism proceed in this manner, press upon the Tumor backwards & you will feel the pulsation, then place the fingers on the side of the Tumor & raise it, & if it is not an Aneurism there will be no pulsation felt while it is so raised up, & if the Tumor is not from an Aneurism but from an enlargement of the Gland only, it will go up with a jerk in Deglutition, because in ^{swallowing} the Gland goes up with the Trachea Arteria & Cartilages of the Larynx. Dr Hunter of all the Aneurisms he has ever seen never saw one in the Neck. The Trachea Arteria runs down from the Thyroid Cartilage to the Thorax thus; first it runs behind the left Subclavian Vein & the common trunk of the right subclavian & Carotid Artery, lower down it is behind the Aorta & Vena Cava Superior, at the Basis of the Heart it divides into two Branches, that which goes to the right Lobe of the Lung passes behind the Vena Cava Superior, that which goes to the left Lobe passes under the curvature of the Aorta. The Esophagus goes directly behind the Trachea Arteria, immediately upon & close to the Vertebra & goes within what we call the Posterior mediastinum.

The Oesophagus, Diaphragm & Liver

Mediastinum all $\frac{1}{2}$ way down on $\frac{1}{2}$ middle forepart of $\frac{1}{2}$ Spine, having
 $\frac{1}{2}$ Vena Cava on its right side, that gives Vessels between all the Ribs &
comes from $\frac{1}{2}$ Vena Cava superior; on its left side lies $\frac{1}{2}$ Aorta Descendens.
The Oesophagus lies close to $\frac{1}{2}$ Spine between it & $\frac{1}{2}$ Pericardium under
the Heart, then gets a little to the left side of $\frac{1}{2}$ body to pass thro' the
fissure in the Diaphragm. Dr Hunter has an Oesophagus in which a
Half Crown Piece is sticking just behind the Heart. The Diaphragm
is attached to the inner Margin of the Chest about an Inch above it to
make room for $\frac{1}{2}$ attachment of $\frac{1}{2}$ Transversalis Muscle of $\frac{1}{2}$ Abdomen.
 $\frac{1}{2}$ fibres of the Lungs are in a manner connected & we come now to the
abdominal Viscera none of which are attached to $\frac{1}{2}$ forepart of the
abdomen, except $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver, & that is only, by a Ligament or Fold of the
Peritoneum from $\frac{1}{2}$ Diaphragm going around what was $\frac{1}{2}$ Umbilical
Vein in the Fetus to the Diaphragm again, called $\frac{1}{2}$ Falciform Ligament.
The Liver lies immediately under $\frac{1}{2}$ Diaphragm & has a convex surface
adapted to that of the Diaphragm & abdominal muscles; it is divided
by an anterior notch into a right & left Lobe, $\frac{1}{2}$ right which is $\frac{1}{2}$ largest
fills up the whole Epigastric Region & Hypochondrium of $\frac{1}{2}$ right side,
the left is the smallest & possesses part of the Epigastric Region;
the under side of $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver is concave; $\frac{1}{2}$ concave surface of $\frac{1}{2}$ right Lobe
is not perfectly smooth; it lies upon $\frac{1}{2}$ Kidney & has $\frac{1}{2}$ Gall bladder
& Duodenum under & behind it; $\frac{1}{2}$ concave surface of $\frac{1}{2}$ other Lobe
is smooth & lies upon $\frac{1}{2}$ Stomach & $\frac{1}{2}$ little Spleen of which lower
upwards & backwards & Liver is firmly connected to the Diaphragm.
The Stomach lies in $\frac{1}{2}$ left Hypochondrium, its larger end called
Cardia begins from $\frac{1}{2}$ Oesophagus underneath $\frac{1}{2}$ Diaphragm, then
goes

The Spleen and Mesentery

goes downward & making a Turn, crosses & projection of $\frac{1}{2}$ spine & terminates in $\frac{1}{2}$ Duodenum at $\frac{1}{2}$ smaller end called $\frac{1}{2}$ Pylorus. The spleen lies under $\frac{1}{2}$ stomach's greater extremity upon $\frac{1}{2}$ Diaphragm, these two Viscera pos sep $\frac{1}{2}$ same space & left side, as the Liver does on the right. As we call that which connects $\frac{1}{2}$ small Intestines to $\frac{1}{2}$ Loins Mesentery, & that which connects $\frac{1}{2}$ Colon to $\frac{1}{2}$ Loins Mesocolon, it is better to call that thin membrane running to the Liver from $\frac{1}{2}$ upper part of the stomach by $\frac{1}{2}$ name of Mesogastrium, instead of $\frac{1}{2}$ little Epiploon as Winslow calls it. The Mesogastrium covers $\frac{1}{2}$ Lobulus Spiegelii, so that it may be seen thro' this Membrane behind; the Gall-ducts go down by it to $\frac{1}{2}$ Duodenum, near $\frac{1}{2}$ bunch of Vessels that enter $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver it makes a cavity with only one opening in it by a natural hole in this place & $\frac{1}{2}$ cavity extends over the stomach; the place where this bunch enters is called $\frac{1}{2}$ Porta or Gates of $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver by $\frac{1}{2}$ Greeks & it was said, the Priest who examined $\frac{1}{2}$ Entrails of $\frac{1}{2}$ Victim at $\frac{1}{2}$ Ceremony for telling future events, observed $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver in this place particularly. The Epiploon is fixed to $\frac{1}{2}$ stomach, from whence it turns up to the Duodenum, which goes down to the right Kidney thro' $\frac{1}{2}$ Mesocolon to $\frac{1}{2}$ Root of $\frac{1}{2}$ Mesentery, to this part $\frac{1}{2}$ Duodenum may be said to be going down, then $\frac{1}{2}$ gut turns up by going under the root of $\frac{1}{2}$ Mesentery over $\frac{1}{2}$ projection of the Spine; the Duodenum is nowhere loose or floating, but is every where bound down, as soon as it becomes loose it is called Jejunum, $\frac{1}{2}$ Mesentery begins here. The small Intestines are three, $\frac{1}{2}$ Duodenum, Jejunum & Ileum. The general bulk of $\frac{1}{2}$ Jejunum is in $\frac{1}{2}$ cavity of $\frac{1}{2}$ Abdomen; as the Gut goes on it takes $\frac{1}{2}$ name of Ileum at no determinate point however the general bulk of $\frac{1}{2}$ Ileum possesses $\frac{1}{2}$ cavity of the Pelvis, the Gut grows larger at $\frac{1}{2}$ upper edge of $\frac{1}{2}$ right Os Ilium, from the large intestines begin, $\frac{1}{2}$ first of which is $\frac{1}{2}$ Colon. The Colon runs upon $\frac{1}{2}$ right side over $\frac{1}{2}$ Kidney, & Psoa Musc & some part of the Liver.

The Mesentery and Intestines

Liver, then turns from right Hypochondrium & runs across y^e body to the
loft, as it goes across it passes under ^{great} curvature of y^e stomach, then it
goes downwards & backwards to y^e lower end of y^e spine to form the Pectum,
the Colon almost surrounding y^e small Intestines & y^e Rectum lying in
y^e Pelvis. We see in what universal a manner y^e warmth of a Glyster
will be diffused over y^e small Intestines, for y^e whole Colon may be
filled with a Glyster injected up y^e Pectum. The Mesentery is a fold
of y^e Peritoneum from y^e Loins going over y^e small Intestines & to the
Loins again, at the Colon it is very broad, at the two terminations of this
gut first it, it is narrow, it is called here Mesocolon & is plainly a
continuation of y^e Peritoneum, y^e y^e Mesentery, between y^e Fold the
Vessels run to y^e Intestines. The Epiploen is connected before to y^e great
Curvature of y^e stomach & runs upon y^e loft side to the p^lace between
it & y^e Colon; from its connection with y^e stomach we see y^e reason why in a
strangulated Hernia y^e patient complains greatly of his stomach, it is
caused by a little bit of y^e Epiploen getting down into y^e Hernial sac &
dragging down y^e stomach. In this case when we operate, to set y^e
parts free, it is a general Rule with Surgeons to spread out y^e Epiploen
to see that we do not cut off or tie any Intestine with it when we cut
off, or make a ligature upon it, for y^e danger from wounding y^e Colon
which is y^e Intestine generally protruded in a Hernia would be very great.
The Epiploen is a bag of y^e Peritoneum in a Sister, but in an adult or
soon after y^e Child is born, y^e cavity is filled up by y^e sides uniting
together, & each side of this bag is a doubling of y^e Peritoneum, so
that y^e Epiploen is made originally of four folds of y^e Peritoneum.

Lecture 146

We shall go over $\frac{1}{2}$ Abdomen again & begin with $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver; what is called the left Ligament of $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver is nothing more than $\frac{1}{2}$ left extremity of the general connection of this Viscus to the Diaphragm by $\frac{1}{2}$ Peritoneum; what is called $\frac{1}{2}$ right Ligament is nothing more than $\frac{1}{2}$ right extremity of the general connection to $\frac{1}{2}$ Diaphragm, on this side it is farther back & less conspicuous than on the other. On $\frac{1}{2}$ right side $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver goes as far back as $\frac{1}{2}$ Abdomen goes, & hangs pretty low down, on $\frac{1}{2}$ left side it don't go so far back nor hang so low, & has $\frac{1}{2}$ Stomach & Spleen connected with it behind. The Vena Cava Inferior lies on $\frac{1}{2}$ right side of $\frac{1}{2}$ spine just below $\frac{1}{2}$ Diaphragm & turns thro' a notch in $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver. The great Vessels of $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver go from $\frac{1}{2}$ Root of $\frac{1}{2}$ Mesentery at $\frac{1}{2}$ Pains obliquely upwards and pass over $\frac{1}{2}$ Lobulus Spigelii; upon $\frac{1}{2}$ Lobulus Spigelii is seen $\frac{1}{2}$ great bunch of Vessels which go into $\frac{1}{2}$ Porta of $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver; it is made of the Hepatic Artery, $\frac{1}{2}$ Vena Portarum Hepatica & $\frac{1}{2}$ Hepatic duct that makes $\frac{1}{2}$ ductus communis Choledochus. The Vena Cava Inferior lies behind the Lobulus Spigelii, & immediately below it sends off $\frac{1}{2}$ emulgent Vessels; The Lobulus Spigelii lies immediately before $\frac{1}{2}$ right Vess Diaphragmatic.

The Oesophagus, as soon as it gets thro' $\frac{1}{2}$ Pleura $\frac{1}{2}$ Diaphragm before the Spine, turns about to $\frac{1}{2}$ left to be continued into the large end of the Stomach. The Spleen is joined to $\frac{1}{2}$ posterior part of $\frac{1}{2}$ great extremity of $\frac{1}{2}$ Stomach, & gives Vessels to it. Next the stomach it has a concave surface adapted to $\frac{1}{2}$ convexity of that Viscus, where it lies against the Diaphragm its surface is concave & adapted to $\frac{1}{2}$ concavity of that Partition. Its two ends lie upwards & downwards obliquely, its lower end resting on $\frac{1}{2}$ kidney, its upper end touching the Spine; its posterior surface is connected to $\frac{1}{2}$ Spine & kidney of $\frac{1}{2}$ left side.

The Duodenum

Side by Cellular Membrane & Before it projection of it Spine in it Loins
just in it Angle between it Mesocolon & Mesentery; it great Mesenteric Vessels go
down, it artery on it left, & it vein on it right, they branch in the Mesentery to the
same Intestine & go up to it Colon by branching in it Mesocolon. These branches
run in it Cellular Membrane that connects it doubling of it Peritoneum &
spread over it Intestines, along with them it nerves go, & lymphatic Vessels
which pass thro' Lymphatic Glands in their course from it Gut. The
Duodenum begins at it right extremity of it Stomach at the Pylorus; the
commencement of it One of it end of it other is known by a Stricture, it first
arises up then turns downwards, then backward, passes over it kidney of
it right side & goes thro' it Mesocolon; here we lose sight of it, but by
turning up it Mesocolon we gain sight of it again & see it crossing the
Spine to it left side, it Vena Cavalis behind it where it goes thro' the
Mesocolon, it crosses it spine behind it loof of it Mesentery & its Vessels, then
emerges, becomes loose, & acquires a Mesentery, & then it gut takes the
name of Jejunum, so that it Duodenum takes a circular course from it
Stomach to it Spine, & to it concave part of it the right end of the Pancreas
is fixed. There are two reasons why it Duodenum is fixed, & has no
Mesentery, first because a it other Intestines that have Mesentery are
loose, & fall down by their weight & if it Duodenum ^{then} had had a Mesen-
tery it would have been loose & fallen down as it other, & consequence
of which would have been, that it Stomach would have been continually
disordered from being pulled down with it; secondly, because if it had
had a Mesentery, so as to have fallen down when it body was erect,
the Gall Duct would have been stretched & it flowing of it bile into the
intestines

The Pancreas, Vena Portarum &c

intestines would of course very now & then have been prevented. To avoid these accidents it is that \varnothing Duodenum is firmly bound to the part by which it runs, & is not connected to \varnothing Loins as \varnothing other intestines are. Winslow describes a great \varnothing little Pancreas, but they are only two Lobes of one & \varnothing same gland. The Pancreas lies across \varnothing Spine behind the stomach, the greater part of it is on \varnothing left side, making what Winslow calls \varnothing great Pancreas, we \varnothing great Lobe, its end touches \varnothing Spleen & \varnothing great splenic Vein runs along its lower part to that Viscus, \varnothing Splenic artery behind its upper part; it is a flat gland, one flat surface lying towards \varnothing back, \varnothing other towards \varnothing Stomach, its left extremity lies upwards & backwards, & lies very far back in \varnothing Abdomen, its right extremity lies forwards and downwards, & does not go so far back as \varnothing other; where it lies across \varnothing Spine it is very narrow to allow room for \varnothing Mesenteric Vessels, when it has got across \varnothing Mesenteric Vein it grows larger & ends down a process which fills up \varnothing concavity of \varnothing Duodenum that otherwise would be vacant, this is \varnothing little Pancreas of Winslow. There is one Duct to the whole gland, which opens into the Duodenum. In \varnothing Mesentery & Mesocolon are Veins bringing back blood from \varnothing Gut, these are every where called Vena Portarum, because they carry \varnothing blood to \varnothing Porta & branching into \varnothing Liver distribute \varnothing blood to all parts of it. This is a singularity in \varnothing general circulation for instead of carrying its blood to \varnothing Venal Cava as other do, the Vena Portarum carries it to \varnothing Liver; it resembles a Tree having its Root on the Mesocolon, \varnothing branches make one Trunk which passes under the Pancreas, where it receives \varnothing Vena Splenic & then enters \varnothing Porta. The Duct of \varnothing Liver receives \varnothing Duct of the gall bladder into it, passes down behind the Duodenum and unites with \varnothing Pancreatic duct.

The Abdominal Viscera

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duct; which commonly enter by one common Orifice into ^{the} Duodenum close to the Pancreas at the lower part of a longitudinal ridge on the inside of the gut - having now done with ^{the} general description of ^{the} Viscera in Situ, we next come to the description of each particular Viscus as it appears in dissection. As ^{the} Abdominal Viscera sooner putrify than ^{the} Thoracic, we shall begin with them first, & because that putrefaction soon spoils ^{the} whole, we shall first only speak of them Anatomically, & when ^{the} whole of them are gone then we shall speak of them Physiologically. The greatest of ^{the} Viscera of ^{the} Abdomen is ^{the} Alimentary Tube, ^{the} others are only appendages to it. It begins at the Pharynx, from this the Oesophagus is continued down, & which we shall begin with, then it becomes Stomach, from this ^{the} Intestines arise, three small ones, call'd Duodenum Jejunum & Ileum, & three large ones, the Caecum, Colon & Sigmoid which ends at ^{the} Anus. This Tube is fixed in some parts, in others it is loose & has a smooth external surface, it has only two proper coats, for ^{the} Peritoneal coat is not general. The outer coat is muscular made of external longitudinal & internal circular fibres, ^{the} inner coat is a shaggy Membrane call'd Tunicia Villosa from ^{the} Villi that compose the shaggy appearance; it is of a very close texture & serves to prevent exudation as ^{the} internal Membrane of ^{the} Blood Vessels does in ^{the} living body. Anatomists have described another coat between these two, by some of them call'd ^{the} Cellular, by others ^{the} mucous coat but it is nothing but Cellular Membrane connecting the two together. As soon as ^{the} Oesophagus gets thro' ^{the} Diaphragm, it dilates a little & is continued into ^{the} Stomach. It does not lie in much Cellular

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The Alimentary Tube

Cellular Membrane as it is fixed by the Parts themselves, through which it passes & is but small. Its Muscular Coat is very strong, & external longitudinal fibres are stronger than its internal circular ones; within side its Muscular is its Pillous Coat, it is so loosely connected with its Muscular Coat that it may be pinched up, & a piece of it cut off without engaging that, it is made rough & shaggy by its Villi which are short & exceedingly Vascular. In its Oesophagus there is a Cuticle but Dr Hunter never could find any thing like this appearance in the stomach by steeping &c. That it is cuticle is very evident, for every thing else but this is Vascular & may be injected it is perfectly inorganic. As its Cuticle on its external parts is sometimes thickened & diseased, we may suppose that this may sometimes be so too, & Dr Hunter has a considerable piece of this Cuticle thickened, which was vomited up, it tore without any fibrous appearances & appeared in every respect like its External Cuticle.

The Stomach.

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Lecture 4th

The Stomach begins at its lower end of its Oesophagus, which is dilated gradually; where its Stomach begins it is called Cardia, & by some the improperly its superior or left Orifice; It ends at its Duodenum at what is called its Pylorus, by some as improperly as its, its inferior or right Orifice resembles a Bad-pipe; its upper concave part between its two Orifices is called the little curvature. The Peritonium is stretched over each side of it & makes its external covering, & this Membrane from its two sides meeting at its great curvature forms its Epiploones its Muscular coat is strongest at the Cardia & little curvature, namely a continuation of its longitudinal fibres of its Oesophagus, for where it is narrowest its Muscular Coat is thickest and vice versa. The Muscular Coat is composed externally of longitudinal fibres & internally of circular ones, but both these are blended together. The inner or Villous Coat is loosely connected to the Muscular by Cellular Membrane. When a Stomach is opened that has been distended, this coat is found smooth in proportion to the distension, but if opened without being distended, then it will always be found thrown into Rugae, because this coat cannot contract & therefore when its Muscular Coat is contracted it throws this into Rugae, which appear to be circular, longitudinal or both according to its different contraction of its different Muscular fibres; its Rugae are not permanent but made entirely of its loose Villous Coat, & if this is made even by distension of its Stomach, yet it appears rough & shaggy by means of its Villi interspersed throughout. We are not sure that there are any Islands in its inner coat of its Stomach as we are in its Intestines especially its large ones. The Vessels come to the Stomach at the little

The Stomach

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little & great curvature, & anastomose with each other. The Arteries & Veins run every where together. At the Cardia there is nothing material; at $\frac{1}{2}$ pylorus there is a doubling of $\frac{1}{2}$ inner coat that makes a ring somewhat tubular determining precisely $\frac{1}{2}$ end of $\frac{1}{2}$ Stomach & beginning of the first intestine, it projects a little way into the Duodenum, & is received by it like as the $\frac{1}{2}$ Uterus is furnished with $\frac{1}{2}$ inner membrane of $\frac{1}{2}$ Uterus & is received by $\frac{1}{2}$ Vagina. It is not a perfect Valve for $\frac{1}{2}$ Bile often comes up in vomiting; $\frac{1}{2}$ placenta; $\frac{1}{2}$ Stomach ends & $\frac{1}{2}$ Duodenum begins is easily known by a Suture, above which the Stomach is thick & immediately below $\frac{1}{2}$ gut is thick. The Small Intestines are three, the Duodenum, Jejunum & Ileum. We shall first describe a small Intestine generally & afterwards mention the peculiarities of $\frac{1}{2}$ Three. It is thrown into the circular figure by being attached to the Mesentery, which is immediately at its Concave part; its external covering is a Continuation of Peritoneum, except where the Mesentery is attached to it. This Intestine has not any Fat upon it even in the fattest bodies. Its Muscular Coat is composed of External longitudinal & Internal circular fibres connected to the inner Coat by Cellular Membrane, $\frac{1}{2}$ inner Coat is Villous, & loose so as to form Plicae which are permanent, called Valvulae Conniventes, but as Ruysch observes, they are not Valves, as they allow passage both ways, these are permanent; those in the Stomach are only Occasional. Their evident Use is to enlarge the internal surface of $\frac{1}{2}$ Intestine for the purpose of Secretion & Absorption, so that $\frac{1}{2}$ inner Coat is as long as if the $\frac{1}{2}$ gut was twice or three as long as it is, the inner Coat is shaggy and ascending

The Intestines

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exceeding vascular, frequently there is an appearance in the inner Membrane of $\frac{1}{2}$ Intestine, which we take to be glandular, & they are glands sometimes diseased, thickened, indurated, even ulcerated all up & down, $\frac{1}{2}$ Intestine. In some bodies they shall appear very numerous, in others you shall hardly see one. The Vessels come from $\frac{1}{2}$ Mesentery, while in the Mesentery they anastomose freely, but there is no appearance of anastomosing in $\frac{1}{2}$ Intestine. The Arteries & Veins run together & besides these there are Ducts & Lymphatics which are best considered separately. The Peculiarities of the small Intestines are these, $\frac{1}{2}$ Duodenum has nothing peculiar except that it has no Mesentery, where $\frac{1}{2}$ Mesentery begins on $\frac{1}{2}$ Intestine, $\frac{1}{2}$ Jejunum begins. The Jejunum differs from the Ileum in that it has Valvulae Conniventes, which $\frac{1}{2}$ other has not, & because it is thicker & has more blood carried to it than $\frac{1}{2}$ Ileum because of $\frac{1}{2}$ greater quantity of inner Coat, which is very vascular. There is no Mark by which to tell where $\frac{1}{2}$ Jejunum ends or Ileum begins, for $\frac{1}{2}$ Valvulae Conniventes don't disappear suddenly, but diminish insensibly. Winslow attempted to determine this point by Measurement, saying that of $\frac{1}{2}$ length between $\frac{1}{2}$ Duodenum & Caecum, $\frac{1}{2}$ one was two fifths, $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ three fifths, but however, this may do in a dead body, Answer can be applied to a living. The Caecum, Colon & Rectum form a large portion of $\frac{1}{2}$ Intestinal Canal, it's beginning is largest of all, then it decreases as it goes along to $\frac{1}{2}$ end of $\frac{1}{2}$ Ileum, ^{but} when it gets down to $\frac{1}{2}$ in $\frac{1}{2}$ Pelvis it grows large again, at $\frac{1}{2}$ Caecum is a Valve so that nothing can pass from $\frac{1}{2}$ large to $\frac{1}{2}$ small Intestines. The Muscular Coat of $\frac{1}{2}$ Colon makes 3 longitudinal bands, which push up $\frac{1}{2}$ Intestine into several Concavities on $\frac{1}{2}$ inside, called $\frac{1}{2}$ Cells of $\frac{1}{2}$ Colon. The Colon makes $\frac{1}{2}$ greatest part of $\frac{1}{2}$ large Intestines & differs from $\frac{1}{2}$ small ones in that

The Intestines

in that it has little fatty bodies upon it, its inner Coat is Villous, but the Villi are very short & few. The Place where it Caecum ends & Colon begins is not distinctly known, for a small projection goes into the large Intestine not so; Middle but on one side as a membranous part of it, & with a door into the bulbous, as if one side of it Gut was dilated & it is this large part, that is generally understood to be a Caecum; Behind it is a small Appendix Caeci Vermiformis, it is a small Subopening into the Gut near a Valve, & its Extremity terminates in a blind point. The Colon seems as tho' it were a continuation of it, for its Muscular bands all come from it. Some have said that this Appendix is what was meant by a Caecum, that it is a true Caecum, but this cannot be, for from earliest Ages of Anatomy, the Intestines have been divided into the Small, the large, & a Caecum has always been reckoned as one of the large, but this Appendix is a very small part of them. The Valve of the Colon, call'd a Valve of Sulpicius, is like that of a Duodenum, a projection of its inner Membrane received into a Caecum, going however much farther into a Caecum, than it other does into a Duodenum; its sides by coming into Contact with each other, act as a Valve. The Rectum has two bands of Muscular Fibres, one before, & other behind, these are very strong, & by their Action constricts the Gut to discharge its Feces all at once. Having considered the Human Intestines Anatomically, we must now consider its Appendages, & Spleen, Pancreas, Liver, & Gall bladder, & Physiology of both till after we have gone thro' the Female Organs of Generation.

The Spleen & Pancreas.

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Lecture 4th

The Spleen has an Artery from the Celiac, & a Vein from the Vena Portarum; It is said that the blood does not coagulate in the Spleenic Vein, but it does as much as in any other; besides the External Peritoneal Coat, it has a Capsular covering of its own, independent of the Peritoneum. It is not to be separated from the Spleen without tearing up along with it little pieces of the Parenchyma, or fleshy Substance, which is very soft and spongy. The opposite sides of the Capsular Coat are united by little Ligamentous Bands, that make off fine Net Work all thro' the body of the Viscus. Ruysch supposed that all its Substance was Vascular, that every the smallest piece of Parenchyma was a continuation of minute Arteries. How its Veins are disposed has not been thought to be known, the general Opinion is that they terminate in Cells, this however is not proved. The Vessels are so tender that with the gentlest handling the substance is soon reduced to a fluid form like blood, it has a great number of Sympathetic Nerves. Its Use is not known.

The Pancreas like the Spleen soon grows tender & fleshy, between its great & little Lobe, it is so small to allow the Vena Portarum to pass under it; however it has a little portion hanging to it beside the two Lobes. It has no one Center of Ramification but receives Vessels at every part. The Duct passes along the middle of the narrow part of it to the Duodenum & commonly opens instead along with the Ductus Communis Cholidochus by one common Orifice, sometimes by a separate Orifice, & then always divides into two branches, & sends one to unite with the Gall duct, & the other into the Duodenum by itself, for the most part however it unites with the Ductus Communis Cholidochus just as it is piercing the Jodestines & opens by one common Orifice. The Lobules Spiegelii lies just against the side of the Officiner. The Superior & back part of the liver is united to the Centrum Tendineum of the Diaphragm, on the right & left side but when the Lobules Spiegelii & body of the liver is a transverse fissure.

The Porta

The Porta, where the principal Vessels enter at the Under part, is another fissure, where the remains of the Umbilical Vein is first which runs thro' this part of the Liver to the Vena Portarum, & a little of the Canal is sometimes found in an adult. In a fissure on the left side of the Lobulus Spigelii is the remains of the Ductus Venosus going from the Vena Portarum to the Vena Cava, & in a fissure on the right side of the Lobulus Spigelii the Vena Cava parva is. There is a dent in the Concave Surface of the great Lobe for the Gall bladder to lie in. The Peritoneal Coat is easily separated from the substance of the Liver, & leaves the Surface tolerably smooth. The Vessels of the Liver are, first the Hepatic Artery, which enters it near the Porta & brings blood to it; the Mesenteric Veins, & Splenic join to make the Trunk of the Vena Portarum, which divides into a right, & left branch, that go to the right, & left Lobe; this Vein is the same in the Spleen, but has a Vein coming into it from the Spleen, & from it goes to the left Vena Cava Hepatica. The Ductus Communis (Chyloductus from the Duodenum) divides into two branches, one the Hepatic Duct that goes to the Liver, the other the Cystic which goes to the Gall bladder; at the Porta then there enters the Hepatic Artery, the Vena Portarum, the Ductus Hepaticus, the Ductus in Plexus, and the Lymphatic Vessels, & this is one Center of Ramification. There is another Center of Ramification from all parts of the Liver to the Vena Cava inferior, where it passes thro' the fissure just under the Diaphragm. The Blood brought to the Liver is carried back by Veins, which open principally by two branches into the Vena Cava, to wit, the Vena Cava Hepatica dextra, & sinistra; just as it is coming from the Diaphragm, there are some other smaller branches, & sometimes a considerable one from the Lobulus Spigelii, but the two first are the principal. Dr Glysson, and Anatomists to since him have taken up an opinion of there being a Muscular Sheath encloving the Trunks of the Vessels at the Porta, and giving off Covering to the branches, called Capsula Glyssonica, but it is nothing more than Cellular

The Liver

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cellular Membrane made harder by Phlegm or of Hueses that run into it, The Parenchyma of the Liver was supposed to be a spongy Mass, into which the blood was effused, lying between the Arteries of the Liver. Reysach thought the whole was vascular, but Albinus who had Reysach's preparations & Observations, and injected as well as himself is of opinion that it is not wholly vascular. The Gall Bladder may be considered as an appendix to the Liver to receive the bile; the Cystic Duct which comes from it is twisted up first upon the body of the Gall bladder, & then turns down, it lies in a Concavity connected with the Liver, & the Peritoneum is stretched over the part of it which does not adhere to the Liver, it has the outer Cover of the Liver continued over it; We conclude that it must have Muscular fibres forming a Muscular Coat, for Mr John Hunter observes that in Swellings & Inflammations the bladder is always contracted over the quantity of bile it contains, be it little or much, and their Action the same as the Intestines. The inner Membrane called Tunica Villosa is rather honey-combed than shaggy, & its Use is to secrete in the living body.

The Female Organs of Generation

Lecture 49th

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The Genital parts of Women are liable to many varieties of different Diseases, in examining it it is much better to do it by the hand alone, but if it should be necessary, to have ocular examination, it ought to be done with one glance of the eye & it were, for it saves a Woman a great Deal to be as expeditious, and delicate as possible. A Surgeon therefore should make himself perfect Master of the Appearance of the Parts, both to the Touch & Eye, that he may be able to conceive every thing of this kind with facility. If a Woman is lean, the Os Pubis always projects greatly, if she is fat, then the Bone is always covered with a thick Cushion of Fat; this rising on the Os Pubis is called Mons Veneris, it has no particular boundaries, below this as we go downwards as the Labia; then the Perineum, then the Anus, and then what Dr Hunter calls the posterior Perineum. The Labia, when the Legs & Thighs are close to one another are both together, they arise from the Mons Veneris above & before, and their retraction is invariably lost towards the Anus. They are covered with the common Outgrowths of Hair as well as the Mons Veneris, but when they touch one another, they are without hair; they are very little more than the doubling of ^{the} Skin, & arise insensibly from the Mons Veneris dividing into a kind of fissure; the passage leading to the Vagina is not exactly in the middle length, but it is under the Symphysis of the Os Pubis, which reaches two thirds down behind the Labia. Following the Labia aside, in the living body, all that surface which appears is red, & to a rough eye, seems like raw flesh, it is covered with an exceeding fine Membrane. In this situation of the parts upwards, and from the Symphysis of the Os Pubis is seen a projecting ledge, coming out very small, & increasing as it goes down, this is called the Clitoris; it has rather a rounded top called Glans Clitoridis, which is covered by a Prepuce made by the Skin.

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the Skin of the Labia; as it passes over from the one to the other, the same kind of mucus is secreted about the Glans Clitoridis, as about the Glans Penis in Men; & the more fluid part of it evaporating, it adheres to the Glans & Papae in an imperforated Cherey, & form as in Men; has likewise that offensive Smell the Clitoris has supported by the bone, & dont hang & low down as the under part of the Vexa Pubis it has no prepuce, similar to that in Men.

From the Glans Clitoridis on each side go down the Hymphe, or Labia Intestina, which touch one another, & are of a red Colour, they may be considered as a Fold or Doubling of the Internal Labia; at their upper end they are fixed to the Clitoris, & of course are always close together there, but they recede wide at the bottom when drawn asunder; each Hymphe at its upper part divides into two folds, the anterior fold makes the Prepuce Clitoridis on one side, & the posterior, or inner one ties the Glans down underneath, analogous to the Frænum Penis. In a Maide, the greatest part of the Hymphe are situated on the outside of the Symphyse of the Vexa Pubis. In those who have born Children they hang somewhat lower; when these parts are kept covered from the Air by the Labia, & from friction, they are of a flesh red Colour, but when the Hymphe project without the Labia, or otherwise remain uncovered, they lose their red Colour, & become of the Colour of the Forteguments on the Buttocks. The Clitoris has sometimes been so large, that with some people, it has been a matter of doubt, whether the Person ought to be censured as a Man, or Woman, but it overhangs detached, nor is its Glans perforated as the Penis is, so that we need not hesitate a moment to say, of what Gender the Party is. Sometimes the Hymphe are very large, & long, & give the Woman a great Deal of Uneasiness of Mind, but it is of no Consequence at all. By turning aside the Labia, & Hymphe we gain sight of the Passage leading to the Vagina & Uterus, it dont lead in perpendicularly from the Labia, but slants first downwards, & then the Vagina

The Female Organs of Generation

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Vagina rises upwards; all this beginning of the passage, that is so much of it as is without the place where the hymen is attached, is smooth all round; in this differs from the Vagina; its depth in a contracted state may be half an inch, or an inch, is one that is distended. The common passage has no particular name; we shall call it vestibulum. The Vagina is rugose, it begins at the place where the hymen is attached, & reaches as far as the uterus. This passage divides into two, one leads to the median urinarius, & the other lower to the uterus. Close to the under part of the Symphysis of the Os pubis is a small granulated rough eminence of flesh, & on the forefront of it is the median urinarius, or end of the Uthra cavity to be distinguished by the finger without seeing it; it is placed as high up as possible so as not to have gone thro' the bone; by feeling for this little eminence the Catheter may be introduced into the bladder with ease, without hurting the Woman so far, not to make use of the eye, unless the parts are altered in Situation, & apparently by inflammation. As soon as the passage becomes rugose, the remains of the hymen appear surrounding the beginning of the Vagina, like so many little eminences, call'd Carunculae, Imperforatae, very apparent in Women that have had Children: the passage goes down behind upon the inside of the Perineum, & then mounts up forwards; on account of this bending passage, the Child's head in birth comes down from the uterus, & presses out the Perineum by lodging on the inside of it, the parts hereabout are all put on the stretch, the anus is always open to open, & the parts within are pressed against it. The great art of Midwifery is to support these parts, & prevent thereby the Child's head from lacerating them at the time of a strong pain, for when once a laceration begins, it runs a great way. It is like losing a piece of Cloth as paper. The Vulva & Anus are sometimes torn into one, if the Woman is wounded

The Female Organs of Generation.

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condemned miserable even after the *Sphincter* being torn, the divided parts never unite, & the stools are continually coming away in clots & mucus, we should therefore support the parts, with our hand against the pressure of the Child's head as long that the Woman will by all means not bear down & strain, but forbear her throes as much as she can, and by so doing & waiting with patience the Head gradually makes its way, rightly, & the Child is born without lacerating the Mother. Dr Hunter once had a patient, that while he was supporting the fore part of the Perineum, expecting the Child would make its way by degrees naturally, the head forced itself thro' the Perineum, between his hand & the anus by making a transverse laceration there, the Child was born thro' this laceration without passing thro' the Vagina the Woman soon recovered, & had no inconvenience remaining after it, for the *Sphincter* was not torn, only the *Perineum* suffered, the Rectum was not injured, & the Woman is still alive & well.

It has been proposed in such cases to sew up the lacerated parts with a view to unite them, but it breeds a very serious as the lacerated *Skin* always inflames & suppurates for the parts are in the state of a bruise from the great stretch they have undergone during the time the Child's head pressed against them. At the same depth from the surface of the body as the *Musculus Utricularius*, there is a doubling of the *Skin* all round the passage called the *Hymen*. In many young Subjects it is found, & always in a flatus, or new-born Child. Dr Hunter believes it is always as regularly formed, as a mouth or nose. It makes the passage very narrow, it is of a crescent form, the broad part behind. The horns before, as the Female grows, it naturally grows less, & less, & sometimes gradually disappears in a great measure of itself, & does not exist, as commonly supposed to be torn on the first Coition, for it is frequently wasted away in young Girls, who have not lost their Virginity, so that its being destroyed, is one proof of a Woman's having had a Child, or forfeited her Virginity.

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Virginity; but the Entrance of the Vagina is always very narrow before the first Coition; whether a Woman has had a Child, or not, is generally known by the Skin of the belly, for if she has had a Child, it will remain rugged & stained from the distension it suffered during Pregnancy, & if she never had a Child, it will be smooth & even; this mark tho' is fallacious, for Dr Hunter shews the body of a Woman, the Skin of whose belly was rugged & stained, and yet she never could have had a Child, for there was a perfect Symum within the vaginal passage, which would not suffer the introduction of a finger. The same appearance of the Skin may be occasioned by Dropsy, and yet it was plain ^{that} the Woman had not die of that disease, & it is highly probable she never had it. Thus far has been described the common appearance of the Internal Parts. The Uterus is surrounded by a Sphincter muscle as in the Male, the Rectum, Anus, & Prostate, Pissaria are just the same. The Sphincter Vaginae is but one circular Muscle leading up to the Cervice Uterinae, the Recto Uterici of each side. One are the same in this Situation as the Recto Pissarii in the Male. It has been disputed whether or not the Vaginae has any Sphincter, but Dr Hunter says, he knows it to be wanting. The Clitoris is made up of two Caruncles consisting of Corpora Cavemosa, like the Penis in males, but without any Corpus Spongiosum. Whether besides this there is an additional Cover by the Sphincter Vaginae, called the Prepuce Clitoridis, which is filled with blood, at the same time that the Clitoris is, it is a flat spongy body lying round the beginning of the Vagina, a network of an innumerable number of Vessels. The Skin on the Inside of the Labia & Nymphae is all full of little Bodies supposed to be the Glandular Organs that secrete the Mucus of those parts, which Mucus is Analogous in every respect to that secreted by the Glands about the Genitals of the Male. By opening the Abdomen, & taking out the intestines, we have the following Appearance in the Pelvis of the Female; the bladder is of the same shape as in the Male, & its broadest part is lowest, it lies

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It lies close behind the Os Pubis & when not distended is considerably below the upper edge of that bone; the Pudum is backwards close upon the Os Pubum, and Os Coccygis: these two do not differ in their Situation from what they are in the male; between them lies the Uterus low down in the Cavity of the Pelvis, & covered with the Peritonaeum, but so loosely connected as to admit of being drawn upwards above the Symphyse of the Os Pubis; it appears like a protuberance of the Peritonaeum. The two broad Ligaments of the Uterus are the Peritonaeum going off from the Fundus on each Side, & are what tie the Uterus to the Side of the Pelvis: they make a complete Partition that divides the bottom of the Pelvis, into an anterior & posterior cavity; in the anterior the bladder sits, in the posterior the Pudum descends. The round Ligaments are a Bundle or Plexus of Vessels that go from the Fundus, Uterus before the former, & in an oblique manner first go downward, then rise upward in the Pelvis, & go thro' the Abdominal Muscles, as the spermatic Vessels do in Men, & are lost in the Mons Veneris of Ladies.

In the Gravid Uterus they pass from above downward to the Opening of the Muscles, for then the Fundus Uteri is raised with the Peritonaeum above the Os Pubis; the End of each broad Ligament divides into two Folds, the Anterior contains the Fallopian Tube, which has a small Ovary at its extremity surrounded with jagged Flesh in a foliated form called the *Mons Veneris* of *Diembru*; the posterior fold has the Pudum lying upon it. When the *Uterus* is not furious, it is a disease, or *Signa* Nature, & *Uterus* supposes Diana is drawn with a half moon on her forehead as a token of her virginity.

The Female Organs of Generation

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Lecture 5th

The Bladder is situated in the Female nearly as in the Male, but where the Prostate Gland lies in the Male, instead thereof is the Vagina; it is connected to the Vagina, the Symphysis of Pubis, & surrounding parts by Cellular Membrane. The Rectum makes the same kind of turn down the Os Sacrum to the Anus as in the Male, & is supported by the Levator Ani, & Os Coccygis at the Anus. The Peritonæum is reflected over the Bladder, Uterus, & Rectum. In passing from the bladder to the Uterus it goes down between them so as to make a cavity between them, & it passes from the Uterus to the Rectum, it goes down still lower & makes a peculiar cavity like a bag between them; from the bottom of these two cavities the Peritonæum rises up to cover the Uterus, which is loose, & varies its position a little in the different attitudes of the body. The Peritonæum in the Anterior cavity does not go so low down as the Os Vaginae & consequently covers no part of the Vagina; in the posterior cavity it goes below the Os Vaginae & covers a pretty considerable part of the upper end of the Vagina. In a Drop of the Abdomen the Water fills the posterior cavity as well as other parts, & by its gravity assisted by the gravity of the Intestines, & their pressure on Respiration, it forces down the Peritonæum, there is then a bag of water between the Uterus, & Rectum, which is gradually pushed on & sometimes directs its way quite down thro' the Cellular Membrane, between the Vaginae & the Rectum, & points at the Perinaeum which is made so thin that a small puncture with a Pinet, would discharge the Water, & by the finger in the Rectum, the bag of water is easily felt before it; every where behind the Bladder & before the Rectum the Vagina lies, it follows the Curve of the Sacrotine, & Os Sacrum, from the Vestibulum it goes first backwards, then forwards, & upwards. The Vagina at the upper part as much of it as is not covered by the Peritonæum, lies in close contact with the Rectum, but below, near the Anus & Vestibulum there is a pretty considerable thickness of muscular flesh.

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flesh; if the lactation in birth dont go thro' this thick part they adrain their
Traces; if it does, they do not retain them; for in this thick part, the Pheristeric
muscle is situated. By the finger in the Vagina, the uterine is felt with
ease, & the state of the Rectum as to Force, & of the bladder as to Urine, is
easily to be judged of by this means. The Disease call'd Prolapsus
uteri is frequently happening. The uterus being pressed upon has a
Tendency to be protruded thro' the Vagina. The first appearance of it is, the
fornix of the Vagina bulges outwards, on account of the obliquity of the
passage. The uterus does not pass immediately down the Vagina,
but forwards on the fore part of it behind the Ventr. Urinarius; as it advances
the pressure which it itself does backwards, & when it comes to the Vestibul-
um, the uterine appears at the lower part of the Vagina, endeavouring to
push out at the Vulva, or at its first appearance, the posterior part of the
Vagina may be forced out near the Perineum. This is the common Stage
of a bearing down. The Spermatick vessels come from the great Vessels
in the Loins, & go as far as the Pelvis, as in the Male, but instead of going
out of the Groin, they stop in the Pelvis, & run in between the two folds
of the latumity of the broad Ligament on each side, & are expanded partly
on the Ovarium, partly on the Fallopian Tubes, & partly along the broad
Ligament to the Fundus uteri. Each of these great Arteries send
down two branches. That which was largest in the Vates, & went up
from the Pelvis to the Navel, degenerates into a Ligament in the Adult, the
other branch goes down on the side of the Pelvis to the Bladder, Uterus,
& Vagina, call'd the Hypogastric Vessel. Duplicated in the Vagina
on the side of the Perineum are situated Coepiply glands, generally very
small, but in some women are as large as a nutmeg; this Ducts stand
upwards, & open just before the Caruncle & Myriformes, or the Hymen in
young Girls, & from them a Slimy fluid may be pressed out. By clotting up
the Vagina

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The Vagina, we see that it is most singular just within the Cavum of the Vagina, & as it approaches the Uterus it becomes smooth; the Anterior & posterior parts are more rugous than the two sides. The Orifice of the Uterus is a slit from side to side with the appearance of a ring round it, & projects a little way into the Vagina. In all common bearing, down the Uterus is not inverted; it is only the Vagina that suffers inversion, & is indeed just after Delivery the Uterus itself is now & then inverted & falls thro' the Orifice; the Substance of the Vagina itself is very thin, covered all within by a condensation of the Judgement of the Cervix, & has likewise a Cuticle as the Prothymus has, which may be peeled off after the Vagina has been long steeped in Water, it cut. It seems to be rather of a ligamentous than musculary texture, its Rugae are all transverse; it is very thin, & in hard labour is frequently torn thro'. The Uterus was always till Rudolphus deviated it, represented resembling a flattened Piston, but in this they considered it with the Ligaments of Peritonaeum; We divide it into the upper & larger part the Fundus, & the lower & smaller part the Cervix; the Vagina is fixed to the Cervix & is reflected round to the Orifice so as to make that ring which surrounds the Orifice. Till Pregnancy is pretty far advanced, there is no part of the Fetus contained in the Cervix, but all of it in the Fundus. The substance of the Cervix is hard like a pistil & without vessels in proportion to the Fundus which is much softer and exceeding Cavicular. As the Uterus is nearly of the same thickness throughout, the internal Cavity is of the same shape as the external Surface, that is to say, nearly triangular with one posterior & two lateral Angles. The inner Surface of the Cervix is full of Rugae with a longitudinal Ridge in the middle of the Fore part. The Rugae go off from the Ridge on each side upwards & downwards, like the fins of a feather; there is but little difference in the Size of Uterus. In some Women, especially in Old Ones, the Cavity of the Cervix is obliterated so that

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so that there is no passage from the Uterus to the Vagina. The Orifice in general is large enough to admit the end of the finger half the length of the canal, & so that the larger & smaller may be distinguished; on the upper part the cavity is conglated on each side, & is as if it were subdivided into two horns. in this it comes nearest to the Descriptions given of it by Anatomists who copied commonly from Desdempede. On the angle of each horn is an Orifice thro which a Riville may be easily passed, by this Orifice the Fallopian Tube opens into the Uterus. When the Uterus is impregnated a quantity of gelatinous fluid is thrown out from the sides of the Cervix, & connects them together, so that all Communication between the Uterus & Vagina is cut off. The Vessels of the Uterus are very numerous. The Spermatic & Hypogastric Nerves anastomose first under the Ptericum, & then under the substance as the Mesenteric Vessels do before they go upon the intestines. The Substance of the Uterus has fibres which have a Contractile power, but their action is slow. This we conclude to be true from the Uterus contracting upon the hand when introduced to take away the Placenta, for at first it shall go in readily but after a little while it can only be introduced with difficulty. The Appendages to the Uterus are first the Ligaments, The Round Ligaments have been supposed to be muscles that in Contraction draw down the Uterus so as to adapt it to receive it to receive the Semen, & their Situation would seem to favour this Opinion, but they appear to consist of nothing but vessels, & their Use not at all on that side. The Others are the Ovaria & the Fallopian Tubes. The Ovarium was call'd by the Ancients the Female Testicle till the time of De Graaf, much & later it was supposed to secrete Semen to mix with the Male Semen. They are much of the size & colour of the Male Testicles, for young Women it is smooth, in old ones it takes an unequal

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unequal choppy Surface, one end is connected to the Uterus by the broad Ligament, the other is connected to the Orifice of the Fallopian Tube at the *Morus Diaboli*, the spermatic Vessels enter on that side which is connected to the broad Ligament, & shoot thro' it; that side which is near the broad Ligament has many considerable Vessels, but that part of the Substance which is at some distance from it, is not much vascular, & in women that have not conceived there are several little Hydatids scattered up & down the Substance, the Corpus Siccum is not found in an Ovarium of a woman that has conceived.

The Fallopian Tube is connected to the Fundus Uteri, it increases in bulk, & becomes convoluted like an Intestine as it goes on to terminate at the *Morus Diaboli*. The Orifice is in the middle of the *Morus Diaboli* like the hole in the middle of a Pink Ticket; their inner Surface is rugose. The Bottom of the Bladder rests upon the Vagina, and sometimes in Delivery it happens that the Vagina and Bladder are lacerated, and a Communication is opened between them, which always continues to be a depending drain for the Urine, if there is a rough Stone in the Bladder & both the Bladder being pierced between the Child's head, and the Stone may be so much bruised as to bring on inflammation, and suppuration, & the Patient who for 6, or 8 Days was thought recovering, shall have her Urine gush out of a Sudden from the separation of the parts in consequence of the pressure done her in Labour, and afterwards can never retain her Urine. If a Stone is sticking in the Urethra it will easily be felt by the finger in the Vagina. As the Urine only flows thro' the Urethra, now & then

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it may be cut, and will heal again; but if the Bladder is wounded from the Vagina, the wound never heals, because the Urine is continually running thro' it. All that posterior part of the Bladder that lies between the Uterus and Vagina lies upon the Vagina. The Uthra is very short, little more than an Inch, or an Inch and an half in length, it is straight and distensible, so that a Stone will often pass thro' it of considerable bulk. It is very when upon the Vagina.

At the time of Puberty, the Uterus and Breasts of Women increase vastly more in proportion than all the other parts of the body, and at the time of Uterine Gestation still more.

The Lymphatics

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The Absorbing System was not known, about 140 years ago, neither was the circulation of the blood. We have already considered it in general, & now shall have a view of some of the particular Lymphatics. It was thought that the Mesenteric Vessels absorbed the Chyle from the Intestines; & the Disappearance of the Water of a Dropsey was accounted for by saying that the Vessels absorbed it. Rivastatus seems to have been the first that noticed the Manner in which the Chyle is conveyed from the Intestines, for he saw the Pectals upon the Mesentery of Kids. Rustachius discovered the Thoracic Duct in a Man, and Ascellius clearly made out the Splanchnic. Rudbeck seems to be the first Discoverer of the Lymphatics. The Reasons why they were not discovered sooner, were probably, these, first & too great respect for received Opinions; secondly they had no Injection, thirdly, the Vessels in many parts are exceeding small, fourthly accidental discouragements, & lastly dead Bodies could be but seldom obtained for Dissection. And the Use of these small Vessels did not appear to be considerable. The Manner of finding a Lymphatic Vessel is in the first place by puncturing a Lymphatic Gland & blowing into it, which will inflate the Vessels; secondly, by Putrefaction, as Malpighi did, then used to find them, but they did not know that it was Air entering them from the putrefying Cellular Membrane, that under them is visible. Anatomists have said that they could be found by blowing into the Arteries, & thus inflating them, but in this Case the Air does not pass immediately from the Arteries into the Lymphatics, but first ruptures the Arteries, & gets into the Cellular Membrane, & from thence into the Lymphatics by Extravasation. & they have said that by blowing into the secretory Ducts, as into the Uters, the Lymphatics will be inflated, but this likewise happens from previous Extravasation.

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extravasation. Blowing into the Cavities whence they arise, or into the Intestines, will distend them, & render them conspicuous, & they generally will be found to run along with the Mesenteric Vessels. When a Vessel is found, if it is a Lymphatic it may be known from an Artery, or a Vein by its great Number of Valves, & from the great thinness of its Coat, & from running upon Surfaces where no sensible Artery, or Vein does, as upon the external Surface of the Livers; besides, those Vessels do not ramify as the other Vessels do, but make direct courses with each other, & all they come to a common Trunk. They have no Valves. Much denied, that they had any Valves, & call'd those little bodies within them pieces of Fat only, for he observed that they might be injected both ways; but it is very plain that they have Valves, for tho' they don't catch in the dead body, it is most probable that they have something depending on Life, which makes them catch in the living body, Another peculiarity is, that the Lymphatics are often long solitary Tubes running the whole length of the Legs thigh without branching, & they often grow Varicose. The Substance of the Lymphatics is probably Muscular, tho' we cannot demonstrate any thing Muscular in them. Some have said that the Valves are little Muscles to propel the Lymph forwards, others that they are to strengthen the Sides of the Tube, which opinion Professor Monro says is frivolous, because a Sphincter on the out side would have answered the purpose, better than this on the inside. Their Use is undoubtedly to prevent the Retrograde Motion of the Lymph. Swenhook supposed that every Lymphatic had its Origin in a Gland. Much supposed them to arise from Testicles. Brianet & Bartholin were the first who imagined them to arise from the Interstices of fibres. Dr Hunter has demonstrated that they arise from every surface of the body both internal & external. They generally run between an Artery & Vein towards the heart, except those of the Spleen, an other peculiarity is, that they are always running thro' Glands, they all seem to terminate.

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terminate finally in the Thoracic Duct or the Receptaculum Chyli, seldom in the Veins in any Animal, tho' M^r Huxon has found, that in fishes, many of them terminate immediately in the Veins besides what go to the Thoracic Duct, but in the human body they mostly terminate in the Receptaculum Chyli. Dr Hunter thinks there is nothing particular in this part of the Duct deserving this name, sometimes there is a little dilatation of the lower end of the Duct, which is called so. An French Gentleman has lately taken up an Opinion, that the Receptaculum Chyli is not one Trunk, but consists of several branches. For this Opinion however there is not the least foundation. The Thoracic Duct begins at the first or lower Ventricle of the Spleen, runs up the sides of the Spine, passes under the right Crus Diaphragmaticæ, goes up to the Rhizus between the Aorta & Vena cava, goes, passes under the right Subclavian & Jugular Veins & then makes a Turn downwards, & terminates by a single Orifice in the left Subclavian Vein. Its Office is to throw the Glymphs of Chyle into the Mass of Blood. Boerhaave supposed that the Chyle consisted of Oil, Mucilage, & Water, because of these he could make a white Compound somewhat similar to Chyle. The Lymph is commonly transparent & grey. The Chyle is commonly white, & when exposed to the Air, puts on the same Appearance, as the Blood does, that is, it separates into a Coagulum & Serum. Dr Hunter thinks the Stomach is much concerned in making the Blood. Dr Fordyce is of Opinion, that the first Joint of a Lymphatic or Ductal fills itself, & this contracts, & forces the fluid into the second Joint, & that afterwards the Motion of the Arteries, & continually propell it forward, & it seems probable that the Chyle is propelled by the Contraction of the Intestines squeezing it forward. From the great Prevalence of an Ulcer it appears that these Lymphatics can absorb & take away the parts of which the body is composed faster than the Arteries can build them up. The Lymphatick lands when diseased, & hardened, as they very commonly are in the Invention of Scrophulous habits, so as to be felt

rationally

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eternally, thro' the Skin of the Abdomen, are full of a cheery Matter, the coagulable part of the Lymph coagulated, & this Curdly Matter not only plugs up the Lymphatic Gland, but plugs up the Lymphatic vessels also, quite from the Joints down to the Gland. We now come to the particular Lymphatics. Those which come from the Joints are called *Radicals*; it is probable that they arise upon the Villi by making a Net work, when once the Valves are fixed, & the Mercury gets on to the Joints, then is such an Anarctosis, that it will return, & fill all those in the Mesentery, & between the Muscular & Villous Coat, they are numerous, & interwoven, & the Mercury appears to lie in little Cells there. The Radicals are divided into three or four Classes. Those which come from the Joints, before they enter a Gland are called *Radicals puri generis*, & from the Spine to the *Trunculum Chyliferi* generis. No Anatomist has yet demonstrated the Lymphatics of the Stomach: but at the small Curvature there are small Lymphatic Glands, from whence we conclude that there are Lymphatic vessels. The Liver has Lymphatics, which sometimes perforate the Diaphragm, & descend from the Surface of the Liver to its Substance. We cannot demonstrate the Lymphatics of the Human Spleen, but we can in the Calf's Spleen. Mr. Hewson founds his Theory of the Lymphatics being the only Excretory Ducts of the Spleen, which he supposes has a principal Share in the Formation of blood, upon an Experiment that he made by tying the Lymphatics about the Spleen of a Calf, & finding that they contained red Globules. But this does not prove that they are the Excretory Ducts of the Spleen, more than that they are the Excretory Ducts of the Lung, for in the Lymphatics of the Lung of a Lion, there was found coagulated blood, which hindered the Passage of the Mercury. The Lymphatics of the Kidney have never been seen, & in the Human Heart they yet remain undiscovered. In a Bullock's heart Mr. Cruikshank has discovered them, but where they terminated was not clear. The Lymphatics of the Lung may be demonstrated very distinctly, many Anatomists.

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Anatomists have said that they have seen them on the Brain: D'Alton has never seen them, & D'Montu thinks there are none in the internal parts of the Head, the Absorption of the Cantharides shews that they are upon the external parts of the head, & it is likely, there are some on the Brain.

In the Turtle & Fish there are no Lymphatic Glands: The Lymphatics are never filled from the Arteries, but by capturing them, & as they don't begin from the Arteries, there was a necessity for their having Valves to hinder the retrograde motion of the fluids. In the Extremities, as there are deep seated & superficial Veins, so there are also deep seated & superficial Lymphatics; from a cut of the finger the Lymphatic Glands just above the Elbow will swell & inflame.

A Variety of different Theories have been invented to account for their Use. Some have supposed that they pick up extravasated Serum which might have been thrown out, when the Arteries act too strongly; Others thought that they took up the Chyle from the blood to undergo a Circulation of its own, Others that their sole use was for the Absorption of Fat.

D'Alton asserts that the red Veins do not absorb, that the Lymphatics are never injected from the Arteries, & that the Lymphatics are the only Vessels that do absorb in the body. He observes that the Venereal Poison always takes the Course of the Glands; if the infection is received at the Penis, the Lymphatic Glands in the groin are affected, if by the finger, those of the Arm Pit, if by the Mouth those in the Throat, if by the Nipple then those in the Breast, are diseased.

D'Alton supposes that the Fetus is nourished by Absorption, for there is no immediate connection between the Vessels of the Mother, & those of the Fetus, yet it is certain that the Lymphatics, Thoracic Duct are much longer in proportion in a Fetus, than they are in a Child that has been born, or in an Adult. The Semen after it is separated by the Testicle is absorbed by the Lymphatics, & carried again into the Mass of Blood, & is supposed to strengthen the Gland.

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The system, for it is observed that men who are much addicted to Venery are very weak, & that those who never use Venery preserve their strength to a great Age. Dr Hunter supposes that the Lymphatics antagonise the arterial system, that as the Arteries are continually building up the body by adding new matter, so the Lymphatics are continually taking up & carrying out of the Constitution whatever is become noxious & useless. Fevers don't seem to affect the Lymphatic system, so much as the Arterial. The Plague is supposed to be got by Absorption alone from Contact, hence an Ulcerated surface is best for Absorption: A Chancre is almost always followed by a Bubo; & it seems that in People bit by a mad Dog the Poison is not always immediately Absorbed into the habit; & M^r John Hunter supposes for want of sufficient Stimulus to excite Absorption, therefore advises the part to be cut off, or eat away with Caustics as soon as possible.

The Kidney, & Glandula Renales

Lecture 52

The Kidney lies under the Psoas Muscles, & is fix'd down to the neighbouring parts by a large quantity of cellular Membrane, which generally contains a large quantity of Fat. In the different Altitudes of the body, it moves a little upwards & downwards, it lies against the side of the spine before the Quadratus & Psoas Muscles, & upon a little of the lower edge of the Diaphragm, & sometimes in an erect posture the lower end comes as low down as the posterior part of the spine of the Ilum, at least it lies before the inside of the last rib, its Vessels are the Emulgent Artery & Vein that come from the Aorta & Vena Cava; & every now & then, there are small branches coming from the Aorta & Vena Cava, which do not enter the Kidney at its great notch along with the Emulgents, but go in at other parts. The Emulgent Artery enters the Kidney behind the Vein: They were call'd Emulgents because the Ancients supposed that the Urine was milk'd as it were from the blood in the Kidney: its Excretory Duct is within the Kidney, & as far down as it is larger than the rest, is call'd the Pelvis; the remainder is call'd the Ureter, it runs down to the fleshy Linn of the Pelvis made by the Psoas Muscles, & then down the side of the Pelvis towards the Bladder. Between the upper end of the Kidney, & the spine upon the Crus Diaphragmatis lies the Glandula Renalis, call'd also the Renal Capsule, it takes Vessels from the Emulgents, & Phrenics, & lies in a considerable quantity of Fat: If there is a Stone in the Kidney, Nephrotomy has been recommended, & said to have been done successfully; but this Operation cannot be performed safely for we have no Means by which we can be certain of there being a Stone in the Kidney, as we have in the Bladder; so that we shall run the risk of not meeting with a Stone, after we had cut: if we cut upon an Abscess, of the Kidney, & thus discharge a Stone it cannot be call'd Nephrotomy.

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Nephrotomy best merely opening an Alveolus, & in cutting towards the Pelvis we can't avoid wounding part of the Kidney, for great part of the Pelvis lies in it, we should therefore bear the risk of wounding the principal Vessels, and occasion such an Hemorrhage as must prove fatal. The Arteries & Veins go to every part of the Kidney; the Artery enlarges at the Pelvis where it is called Pelvis, & divides into a number of short large Tubes in the Substance of the Kidney called the Infundibular; besides the Cellular Membrane, and Peritoneum, it has a proper Capsula, which easily separates from the body of the Kidney, except when it is blended with the Coat of Vessels that enter at the Notch, & leaves the Surface smooth; its bulk & form is double, there is an outside flesh call'd its Cortical part, & an inside flesh call'd the Tubular part; the human Kidney is compounded of many little kidneys, like as in the Liver, but, of other Animals of that Species consisting of a number of Lobules, which is particularly evident in a Boar's kidney; other Animals have a simple kidney not subdivided into Lobules. In an injected kidney not very minutely injected the Cortical part is all fill'd, & not a Vessel to be seen in the Tubular part: The Vessels all go to the Cortical part first. In every compounded kidney there is an Infundibulum corresponding to each Lobule, the Tubular part of each makes a body like a nipple, which is received into the Infundibulum, & has many Tubuli opening on it; the Infundibulum is placed all round the nipple; this disposition of the Kidney into distinct portions is more apparent in a Fetus, than in an Adult. The Tubuli arise from the inside of the Cortical Substance & make those which are call'd the Mamillary portions. The number of the Mamillary portions, & of the corresponding Infundibula varies in the human kidney, from six to fourteen generally. In a simple Kidney there is properly but one Mamillary Portion. The Cortical Substance is very vascular.

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vasculature Malpighi says that by injecting Ink into the Artery & cutting open the Kidney he saw little bags in the Cortical Substance fill'd with it; the little bags were called *Capsulae* of the Kidney. Ruysch saw these appearances & so did the other Injectors, but he would not allow that they were bags: He said that they were only small droves of minute curling Arteries; One Objection to the existence of the *Capsulae* was, that this Appearance was only the Effect of transverse Section of the Arteries; but this is no Objection: Others said that it happen'd in consequence of the Injection being extravasated? Until Last Winter Dr Hunter believ'd that there were *Capsulae*; But Mr Cruikshank shew'd him plainly that these baglike appearances were nothing else, but curling Arteries, & so that Ruysch is certainly right after all. The Cortical part from Mr Cruikshank's injection appears to be all entirely Vasculare. Allinus said that the Tubuli were Continuations of the Arteries & Veins, & that they might be injected from the Arteries & Veins; but Dr Hunter was of Opinion that what Allinus took for Tubuli was nothing more than the Blood Vessels, for the nourishment of the Tubular part, & supposed that the Tubuli had never been injected by any Anatomist. Mr John Hunter injected the Tubuli of an Ovis Kidney from the Uterus, but Mr Cruikshank has injected them from the Arteries & Veins with Ware, & convinced Dr Hunter, that they are continuations of Blood Vessels; by the Artery & Vein too the Pelvis of the Kidney was fill'd & the injection ran in the very mouths of the Tubuli, that opened upon the Cupulae. There is often great variety in the Enlargement of Artery & Vein as to number, & sometimes there is more than one Pelvis, & more than one Uterus. The right Kidney generally lies a little lower than the left & because of its being press'd down by the Liver on the right side: sometimes one kidney has been wanting, and sometimes both have been united at one End, and make what is called the Horse shoe Kidney.

The Nephros

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The Renal Gland, or Renal Capsula has been call'd Capsula Atrabilis & has been call'd both Gland, and Capsula; it is most probable it is a glandular body; it is exceeding vascular, and is largest, and most perfect in the Foetus: it is lost in some measure in the Adult, tho' not so much as the Thyroid: the outer Substance of it is firm, and of a yellowish white & the inside which is soft, and made of a brownish flesh may be bruised down to a thick fluid, which was supposed to be the Atrabilis & it's Use is entirely unknown, neither is it known whether it is glandular, or not: There is a pretty large Vein runs in the Center, which at first might be taken for the Sacculus Visceris: It has no Secondary Duct that we know of.

The opinion that the Kidney has one Artery bringing Blood to it for the Urine to be secreted from, & another Artery bringing Blood for it's nourishment is false: they say that in the one the blood is fitted for secretion, in the other it is fitted for nourishment; by way that they both come from the Aorta; but even then the Blood in the two must be the same: There don't appear to be any thing of this Kidney, nor in any other part of the body, the lungs excepted.

It is observed that effluvia drawn soon gets into the Bladder: from this some have imagin'd that there is a passage leading immediately from the Stomach into the Bladder, and lately Dr Morgan was of this Opinion: but there don't appear to be any ground for this Suggestion.

It is fully clear that no Urine gets into the bladder, but what is secreted by the Kidneys: The Urine is made of the redundant Water, & excrementitious part of the body: the excrementitious part consists of an attenuated Salt, & an earthy matter: It is absolutely necessary, that the excrementitious part should be discharged from the body, for a person can't live above ten Days

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Days with a total Suppression of Urine, tho' the Urinary part that is retained be no great Deal; hence it was supposed that there was something poisonous in it to the Constitution. The Secret that broke out in Suppression of Urine are not, as have been generally imagined, of an Urinous Smell, which any one may be convinced of that attends to the circumstance, Extraneous Matter may become the Nucleus of a Stone in the bladder, being pushed into it, but in the Kidney this cannot be the Case: it must there be owing entirely to the disposition, the Urine has in itself to form Crystals. Dr Hunter has found little Stones in the Tubuli, Pelliculis in the Substance & pretty considerable ones in the Pelvis of the Kidney, in what in every part of the Stone sticking in the Ureter causes very great pain, & prevents the Urine getting into the Bladder, and the Pelvis & that part of the Ureter which is above the Stone will be greatly distended, by the large quantity of Urine retained. If the Patient is not devoured by the distension, the pressure of the fluid above the Stone will force it downward into the bladder, & the Symptoms will cease. This seldom fails to be the Case. Sometimes the Substance of the Kidney is all wasted away, & nothing remains but an enlarged Pelvis; this was the Case of a young lady whose Abdomen externally was increased prodigiously by one of these enlarged Kidneys — a Son, or Ulcerated Kidney is a very rare Case, tho' it is supposed to happen often: Dr Hunter never saw but one Case of this kind. Inflammation of the Kidney is very common, & lasts often for a long time, & very acutely goes on to Suppuration: it causes pain, the Nephritic Colic, & bloody Water & when blood has lain in the Urine some time, it appears when voided of the Colour of Coffee grounds; oftentimes the Water gives notice when the

Kidney

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Kidneys are affected, yet sometimes when the Pelvis is plugged up no water can get into the Bladder. D^r Hunter had a Complaint in his right kidney attended with bloody Urine, pain sometimes severe, sometimes dull; it was supposed by his Medical friends to be occasioned by Calculi; but he could not think so, for when the pain was dull, if he rode out in his Chariot, the pain was increased in the jolting over the Pavement; it turned to be the Rheumatism, for he was seized with it in his Shoulder, and from that time his nephritic complaints ceased wholly. This Rheumatism was attended with bursting of Vessels, for when it attacked his head, Blood was extravasated in the Tunica Conjunctiva and about the Eye. The Nerves carry on such Sympathies between the different parts as to occasion many Mistakes in judging of the seat of diseases. A Stone at the neck of the Bladder gives pain at the End of the Penis, while a Stone in the Kidney shall feel as it were in the neck of the Bladder; such is the Sympathy of Parts by Means of the Nerves.

Physiology of the Abdominal Viscera,

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Lecture 53

The Anatomy of the Abdominal, or Chylopoietic Viscera has already been given, & now it remains to speak of their Physiologically; to follow the order we kept to in the Anatomy, we shall first of all take the Intestinal Tube, & then its Appendages.

The Alimentary Tube

The food is changed & separated into two parts, the Chyle, or Nutritious part, & the Faeces or Excrementitious part. The food is propelled thro' the Canal by Muscular force, & fluids are carried into the Stomach not by their gravity, but by the Muscular force of the Oesophagus, which is plainly observed in a Horse drinking at a Pond, for the Water passes thro' part of the Oesophagus against its own gravity, & a Man placed upon his head can swallow. The Muscular coat of the Oesophagus can contract so as to squeeze a large body into the Stomach, & so as to squeeze a small body into it, even a small Globule of quicksilver, so that nothing can pass thro' the body, but by Muscular Action. A Man in St. George's Hospital from a blow on his Spinal Marrow had his Abdominal Viscera become Paralytic, so that when he swallowed (for the Oesophagus was unaffected) food having the Muscular action to propel it forwards, remained in his Stomach, which was found full of what had been given, when his Body was opened after Death.

The inner Membrane of the Alimentary Tube is much longer than the other coats because the Plicae, of the surface is still more increased for absorption by the Villi, & little processes of the inner Membrane. The manner in which the operation of Digestion is performed has not yet been settled, as old as the most ancient Physiologists, & as new as the most Modern One, is the Opinion of its being only a Mechanical Change by Attrition, & they strengthened their arguments

The Physiology of the Alimentary Tube

arguments by observing that Birds took Pills into their Gizzards to act as a mite upon the Grain they swallowed! Others have accounted for it Chymically, that the Change was produced by heat & Moisture, as it were by boiling. It was believed that the Venæ Cavae was the fountain of heat, & that for the purpose of warmth, the Stomach was placed near the great Veins, & surrounded by the Heart, Spleen & Liver, which was supposed to make the blood; Others have supposed that the food was dissolved & changed into Chyle by means of a Fermentation, Others that this Change was produced by a fermentation peculiar to the Stomach; lastly many, particularly Boerhaave, took in all these powers to explain Digestion even so much as to say, the shake given by the Arteries contributed the Quota to Attrition. All these Theories are liable to Objections; it cannot be heat, that produces this Change, as those Animals that are cold digest as well as those that are hot, as it can hardly be from Attrition for Carnivorous Birds have no Gizzards, they have Only a thin Muscular Coat for their Stomach; No one can pretend to say what happens in the body, from what he sees going forward out of it. Mr John Hunter has made a number of Experiments & Observations on live Animals as the best method, & indeed the Only One he could take to ascertain by what power it is, that the Operation of Digestion is performed in the Stomach. He observes that all Animals have either their food prepared for their digestion, or prepare it themselves. That Birds are provided with a strong Muscular Gizzard, & take in Pills too, not to digest their food, but Only to act as a mite to take off the Shell of the Grain they swallow, so that the body of the Grain may be digested, which it could not be if the Shell or husk was left on undigested, but would pass thro' them unchanged. An Horse that has lost his Teeth not being Able to break the Shells of his Corn that he eats, will not be nourished by it, but it will pass thro' him unaltered, & he says that the Grain is not digested in the Gizzard, but goes out of it to be digested by the other part of the Canal; he concludes that Digestion is a process sui generis, & learned on so

on as well in cold as in warm ^{Animals} ~~Animals~~ ^{that} larger & small pieces are equally digested; in Animals that feed on Milk, he finds that the Stomach in which the Milk is coagulated by the gastric juices is the Digestor; he finds that the power of the Stomach overcomes fermentation in general; for after a piece of Meat that was putrid had remained in the Stomach of a Dog a little time, he opened the Dog, & found it perfectly sweet; he finds that the power of Stomach is strong in an healthy and hungry Animal; & that it is weak in Unhealthy Animals; & that is not hungry, so that Digestion goes on in proportion as the Constitution stands in need of it; he finds there is no putrefaction again in this process, that the digestive Organs have no power over a living Animal, & can digest an Animal only, after it is dead the principle of Life protects it from the Action of the Stomach; he finds that a Dog digests not only the flesh about the bone, but also the Coats of the Vessels in the bone & extracts the Marrow, so that the bone is discharged with the faeces lightly & spongy; the digestive power pervades the inmost part of the bone; he finds that the Matter formed by Digestion from all kinds of Food is the Same, that a piece of Veal was turned into the same Cream: like fluid as was a piece of soft flesh in the Stomach of a Dog; he finds that Carnivorous Birds (that need not the perspiration of flesh which Granivorous Birds do of the Grain) have no Gizzard, & do not swallow Pebbles; & every body then agrees that in opening dead Bodies, we find the Stomach in some places dissolved into a gelatinous Matter, so that the contents are found to have got out of the Stomach into the Cavity of the Abdomen. Dr Hunter supposes this change or Dissolution does not take place till after Death, that as the process of Digestion might be going on at the time of Death, in those cases the Stomach turns its power on itself, & these occasions are born Attention. As a proof of this Mr John Hunter knew a Man that was killed suddenly by a blow on his head soon after he had eaten his Supper of Bread, Cheese & Potatoes; upon opening his body his Stomach was found to be dissolved; and the Bread & Cheese and Potatoes were burst out into the Abdomen.

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The Appendages to the Digestive Organs are the Liver, Pancreas & Spleen. The
Mesenteries, Mesocolon, as they serve as Ligaments to this which the greater blood
vessels, that carry blood to & from the Digestive Organs, may be considered as appendages
likewise. The Use of the Spleen is not made out, probably, but it is
is by its situation to prevent Adhesions of the Intestines to the Parietes of the
Abdomen. The old Physiologists supposed that the Liver made the blood that
the nourishment was absorbed from the Intestines by the Mesenteric Veins, & by them
carried to the Liver to be turned into blood, that the bile was an accumulated
part of the nourishment rejected by the Liver as unfit for being made into blood,
& that the new formed blood was carried by the Vena Cava Superior from the Liver
into the Vena Cava Inferior, & distributed immediately to all parts of the body.
This opinion continued till after Harvey, when the ducts were discovered, since
then the Bile has been considered as serving some important office in the
process of Digestion. It has been said that the Bile coming from the Liver by
the Ductus Hepaticus, & that coming from the Gall Bladder by the Cystic Duct,
are of 2 kinds, & that the Gall Bladder secreted bile as well as the Liver, & that
the Cystic Bile was thicker & richer for Digestion than that of the Liver, but this
is a mistake, for they are both the same kind of Bile, & both secreted by the Liver,
that the Gall Bladder does not secrete Bile is evident, for if the Cystic Duct is
tied the bladder don't fill. It has been supposed, that the Liver send little
Ducts to the Gall Bladder to convey the bile into it, call'd the Hepato-cystic Duct,
Others have supposed that the bile was sent by the Liver down to the Hepatic
Duct, & that it reaspirated from thence into the Gall Bladder by getting up the
Cystic, where the two meet, & from the Ductus Communis Cholechus in some
kind it gets into the Gall bladder by means of Hepato-cystic Duct, but in the
Human body always by reaspiration: this however has been disputed. Dr
Senac, late Physician to the French King, in his French Edition of Mead's Surgery,
says that the Gall bladder of a Serpent has no communication with the Liver, & that the

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that the Duct from the Liver & that from the Gall-Bladder run a great way togeth-
er but do not communicate. Dr Hunter opened a Snake, & a Quip (for the French
word *Serpent* signifies all Animals of that kind.) & found that the Esophagus and
Hepatic Ducts did run a long way without communicating, but that just as they
are about to open into the Proctodaeum, they do communicate with each other. The
Use of the Pancreas is not known, it secretes a fluid; probably very necessary to
the Operation of Digestion. A Lady after having been for a long time afflicted
with continual spitting, griping & vomiting upon opening her the Pancreas was
found larger & turdous, so that he concluded the Pancreas poured an Acid Juice into
the Proctodaeum, & kept up a constant irritation by its Stimulus. The Spleen is
the *Opusculum Medicum*, for its Use is certainly not at all known. The last Opinion
formed of it is that it has a principal part in the formation of the Blood.
But the greatest Objection to this is, that Animals have lived as well without as
with it. A Man at the Battle of Deltingen was wounded by a Sabre on the
left side of the Abdomen, the Spleen was protruded & mortified, so that it was
judged necessary to cut it off, as it was cut off except a very small piece of it
indeed, the wound healed, the Man did well, & continues well without any
difference in his Constitution to this day. The Truth of this fact, Mr Wilson
Apothecary in St. Michaels & St. Leonard's Garden, can affirm, for he was Surgeon to
the Troop to which the Man belonged, & did himself cut off the Spleen.

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Lecture 54th

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First of those affecting the Tube in general, then of those affecting particular parts. It appears from opening many Dead Bodies, that the narrowest & most muscular part of the Tube is liable to be affected, either partially, as for instance a bit of ulcer, passing this is more liable to excite a part that is narrow, as that contracts on it strongly. The beginning of the Oesophagus then is often found diseased the Pylorus, the Valsula Card, the lower end of the Colon & lastly the Anus, which is narrow independent of the Sphincter Ani, which seems to be the reason why we are plagued here with the Piles, Abscesses, &c. & fistulas. These narrow parts of the Canal being exposed to internal stimulation most frequently found to be the seat of Ulceration. All Wounds of the Tube, are either partial, or more dangerous, as they are nearer to upper part, for if the Stomach or beginning of the Intestines is wounded from without, the Chyle will escape thro' the Wound, as the Patient will not be nourished, if the Wound be towards the lower end of the Intestines, then a great part of the Chyle will be absorbed before it can reach the Wound. In these Cases the Patient should take only as much nourishment as is necessary to keep him alive, that should be of the lightest & most nutritious fluid substances, in large wounds that are high up, we should rather endeavour to nourish him by the Anus, Glisters made of Bath with the yolk of an Egg & a little wine should be injected often in a Day, in small quantities, will afford great nourishment having first emptied the Intestines with a laxative Clyster. The Peristaltic Motion of the Alimentary Tube is often inverted, this inversion may begin in any Part of the Tube, this may happen from various Causes, in the living body different substances irritate & invert different parts of the Tube & Emetics irritate the nerves of the Stomach & any Stimulus applied to the primæ Viæ will irritate all thrown off. Not only Stimuli on the internal

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internal Surface of the primæ Viæ will produce vomiting, but also stimulation the
power of other parts: the Eye for instance will bleed & smart from sympathy,
therefore a person from seeing a disagreeable object becomes sick & vomits; It arises
also from mechanical Obstruction as in a Strangulated Hernia. The Peristaltic
Motion is sometimes suspended; in the first place by Pain, as is hurt done to the
spinal Marrow by a blow, or distortion of the Spine. The Nerve being affected
the Muscular Action is lost in those parts to which the affected Nerve belongs;
it is suspended by an Opiate, for an Opiate does not stop a purging from any
asturgent quality, but only by suspending the influence of the Nerves, by that
means the Muscular Motion of the Canal, & is in constitutional Druggs, Opiates
can only restrain for a time. The peristaltic Motion sometimes is very brisk,
at others exceeding languid; this is another Cause that suspends the Peristaltic
Motion, which we don't understand, it is called a Spasm, this often happens to many
People, so that they shall remain many Days without a Stool, but when the Spasm
goes off the Muscular Coat reassumes its power, & there soon follows a very
copious Evacuation indeed. Most Obstructions in the Intestines have been thought
to arise from Spasm. In every Obstruction the Danger is easily quieted when
it is attended with vomiting. When there is no vomiting they hardly ever
prove fatal. Those Cases which are purely Spasmodic are not attended with
vomiting. When the Inversion of the peristaltic Motion is attended with
violent pain & continual vomiting, so that every thing passes upwards, the
Patient is said to have the Sicca Passio, or Inverse Inie. It has been said that
the Sicca Passio is often caused by Spasms, but in all the bodies Dr Hunter has
opened that died of this complaint, he always found some mechanical Obstruction.
The Sicca Passio is a common Attendant on Strangulated Hernias from the Gut
being obstructed, so that nothing passes thro' it. Besides this, which may be consid-
ered as an external Obstruction, there may be internal Obstruction, as when one
part of

The Diseases of the Elementary Tube,

part of the Intestine receives the other immediately below it into its cavity, & makes a stricture upon it: this is called an Intercussation or Volvulus, & is a very common Cause of the Ileus Passion. The Intestine cannot entangle as in a knot, because of the Trevelley which checks every Intercussation its progress; Dr Hunter related the Case of a Child, that on a sudden cry'd out & went immediately into Convulsions, & in about 24 hours died; upon opening the body, the End of the Ileum was found to have pushed itself into the Colon, & had pushed up, & invulved The Cecum & Colon, & lay under the Liver & was so highly inflamed, & full of blood that there was no disentangling it, but tho' the passage was perfectly obstructed, there was no vomiting from the first Appearance of illness till death: an Ulcer in the Elementary Canal is a common Cause of the Intercussion, or Ileus Passion, it stimulates the Muscular fibres so that the Intestine always keeps small, & by becoming Callous from the inflammation, the Stricture is completed, & the Intestine has no way of freeing itself of its Contents, but by piling up or inverted Peristaltic Motion. Another Cause of Ileus Passion is a thickness, hardness, & tightness of the Coat of the Intestine, analogous to Scirrhus; It arises also from Intestinal Calculi plugging up the passage. It is a question whether there can be a total inversion of the Peristaltic Motion from the Duod. up to the Mouth. This has not been decided. But then can the Contents of the great Intestines get up to the small by passing the Valvula Pici? Some say that it does not act as a Valve in the living body. It is said that at Edinburgh, the Matter of a Glyster was vomited up, & this is said to have happened often. But Dr White told Dr Mead that there was cause to believe, that there was a growing together of the Colon & upper part of the small Intestine, & a way by this means from one to the other in consequence of a suppuration, for the Glyster came up immediately, & did not remain a sufficient time in the body to be forced backwards along the Convolutions of all the Intestines. We come now to consider the diseases of particular parts. First
obstructed

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Obstructed Deglutition Difficulty of swallowing is a very common disease, & often arises from a long Melancholy cause, from the Dilatation of the Coats of the Oesophagus forming a Pouch, sometimes it comes on very rapidly, sometimes very gradually, & imperceptibly, at first some difficulty is met with in swallowing solids, afterwards a difficulty of swallowing fluids. The Patients in this Case, become exceedingly weak, for a considerable time before they are pining for the Difficulty of swallowing increases so much that they are literally starved, & for want of being able to take down any nourishment. Physical People often mistake these Complaints for Spasms, but I think must know Obstructed Deglutition arising to that cause. Swallowing any hard Body, which makes a lodgment in the Oesophagus, hints that Canal, & makes it sometimes dilate into a Pouch; in Swallowing which is performed with great difficulty & labour, the food is received into this Pouch, but is soon thrown up again, the Patient grows very weak in consequence of not being nourished, & Dies, which was the Case of a Gentleman at Ludlow, from swallowing a Cherry stone which lodged in his Oesophagus, & came up some time after. The Case was communicated to Dr Hunter by the Surgeon who attended him, who also made the Dissection of the Oesophagus which he shews. The Case is published in the Med. Obs. &c. When Difficulty of swallowing comes on, it cannot be said from what cause it arises. It may be from an Ulcer, from a Stricture or from a Dilatation of the Oesophagus, or from something else. It is better then, not to force down Bougies, Probes, or other Instruments, for the Oesophagus cannot bear it, a Gentleman had a difficulty of swallowing supposed to be owing to Stricture, & he was thought to have preserved his Life by means of a Golden Ball, with a string fastened to it, which he frequently swallowed, & drew up again, & by this means preserved, did the Stricture from encircling so much as to hinder Deglutition entirely, notwithstanding this it is never advisable to put into the Oesophagus, only with a.

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with a view of getting something out, that has been recently stuck there. In then we can do nothing, I advise smooth & fluid nourishment to be swallowed gradually, to give the Ulcers a chance of healing, if there be any, & a Purginal Cause by Motion. There is a Case related by Dr. Monro in the Med. Trans: in which this method has proved successful. Professor Clegg of Dublin with the help of a Robang with two strings fastened to the end took a Goose Quill out of an Esophagus by entangling the feathered part on the string. & many ingenious men have contrived various instruments to take bodies out of the Esophagus. Dr Hunter has an Esophagus in which an half Crown is stopped & which was the occasion of Death. Small sharp bodies, such as Pins, Needles, &c. when swallowed do in general but little mischief. The Vicistal Injection will have more Effect on the head, or thickest part, by that means the Needle or Pin will be carried thro' all the convolutions of the Gullet with the head foremost with great security. Such small bodies will often work their way from the Esophagus, & other parts of the Alimentary Tube thro' the flesh without causing suppuration, & comes out at a very distant part, because all Motion will tend to force the body of the Needle one way, the head being blunt. It is wonderful what becomes of some things that are swallowed, & never heard of after. This the tools have been most minutely inspected. Wounds of the Esophagus are generally fatal. They are most commonly attended with Wounds of other principal parts. In these Cases we must support the Strength by Nutritive Glysters, & avoid disturbing the Esophagus by swallowing. Boerhaave describes a Case in which the Esophagus was ruptured quite thro' transversely just above the Diaphragm. A Man was carried to St. George's Hospital with a fractured Skull, quite senseless from the moment of the Accident, of which he died; he was wrestling, and thrown by his Antagonist on a

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Marble. Flood. & Hunter as he was just examining the Thoracic Cavity, accidentally discovered a longitudinal rupture of the Oesophagus, & suppose it was done by his Antagonist at the time of the throw, having run round his neck, so as to compress the Oesophagus, & shut down round his belly, so as to press the contents of the Stomach into the Oesophagus, & burst it. The Stomach is a very nervous sensible part; the nerves of different parts seem to convey a different kind of feeling to the mind, hence when the Stomach is wounded or hurt, the pain seems to be very genuine, it is not a Acute pain, but exceeding Oppressive, the Patient is Unmannered & sinks surprisingly fast. The Stomach appears to be a great Center of sympathy with all parts of the body, hence a Trauma, when food is improper & Pregnant Women liable to frequent Vomiting, because in the first month, the Constitution requires but little nourishment, or they would be too full of blood, or when Poison has been taken, we should give an Emetic that will operate quickly, as a White Vitriol. If the Poisonous Substances is of that kind which may be diluted, we should give large quantities of Dil. Milt, &c. and when the Stomach is well cleared we must purge, and give plenty of watery things. Wounds of the Stomach are almost always mortal, or Ulcers are not infrequent in the Stomach, chiefly about the Pylorus, and are attended with great Languor & Dissolved Stomachs especially when attended with Inflammation are very irritable; when there are frequent Vomiting, we may suspect the Stomach to be considerably affected, yet we are not to say, they are caused by Ulcers, or Sinthi for it most commonly happens from other Causes. It is probable that most Cases of irritable Stomachs are owing to some incapacity in the Stomach.

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Stomach to digest properly. By attending to the quantity and quality, that the Stomach is able to bear, and adhering to that, in time it will recover itself and become gradually able to digest more and stronger food; oftentimes a Teacup full of any Liquid will cause a violent vomiting &c. from its bulk, whilst a Spoonfull of the same kind will be digested kindly. A Boy of about 12 years of Age was very much reduced and emaciated from frequent vomitings so that whatever was given him would not remain on his Stomach; the fault was, that he took food of a different quality, and more in quantity than it could digest, so that it was rejected; for by attending to what quality & how much of food agreed, he got well; he took so small a quantity as a Spoonfull of Milk for a meal, which agreed perfectly well, so that the Stomach had time to recover itself, and as that happened, the quantity was increased, till he could digest any kind of Food.

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Lecture 55th

It is very hard to guess at the nature of internal disorders, whatever some People may pretend to do. I recently once found an enlarged Tumour on the inner Surface of the Duodenum near the Orifice of the Ductus communis (Bile duct) which was impossible any one should have known. Sometimes there are formed little knobs on the Villous coat, which seem to have been mistaken for small-pox pustules on the internal Surface, but they are little processes or grains upon the Villi, & are found in people not affected with small-pox. This appears to be an inflammation & Suppuration peculiar to the Kid internally, & proceeds, it not having the least tendency to affect internal unexposed Surfaces, for the Vagina in Utero, where the Kid is not exposed, is not affected with small-pox. In these cases where I Hunter has seen a Woman with Child affected with the small, the Child has sometimes or often afterwards had the small-pox, as others have it, so that it appears that the fever is never communicated to the Vagina from the Mother.

Ulcers in all the Intestines are very common, & are also attended with disordered & indurated Mesenteric glands, & Disease of the Lymphatic Vessels, they are stuffed full of the coagulable part of the Lymph, coagulated in them. In the Caecum a little above the Caecum is frequently found a Diverticulum or Pouch of Intestine. One of this kind was found to have formed a Rupture of itself by a Person who operated to free the Situation. Sometimes the Coat of the small Intestines are found full of a whitish, chalky Substance, this is an Ossification of the Intestine. Mr Cheselden mentions an Ossification found in the Omentum of a Sheep, which is a very common thing. The Caecum is the place where indigestible things will most likely lodge. At one time it was the custom to swallow Cherry Stones along with the Pulp, which accumulated in the Caecum & caused inflammation & Abscess towards the right groin, which being opened gave discharge to the Stones.

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Stones, & this was fatal to many People. The Caecum made a pouch that became a receptacle for every thing that was indigestible. A Man in Cornwall had a Suppuration in his Groin, & was cured from a neglected rupture & fistula, about three Inches of the Intestine was excised & cut off. The Wound healed, & the Stools passed as usual, & the Man got perfectly well; sometime afterwards he died. Wth Simmons of Exeter opened his body; the Gut that was cut off was found to be the Appendix Caeci Vermiformis, & long side of the Caecum, so that the Canal was entirely a passage was left for the Excrements to go on to the Anus. This Case is published in the Med. Obs. &c. and probably was a suppuration from an accumulation of indigestible Matter or hardened Faeces in the Caecum. Almost all Ulcers in the Intestines are attended with purging, probably enough from the irritation produced by the discharge from them. Sometimes the Ulcer contracts the Canal of the Intestine & produces the Stricture & even Obstruction. D^r Hunter knew a Lady, that died soon after having had a copious stool of pure blood. It was found to proceed from an Ulcer of an Artery by an Ulcer in the Spleen. Sometimes an Ulcer is found in the Intestine of a truly Cancerous Nature, which keeps up a constant irritation, and the Stomach & other parts of the Bowels are affected by Sympathy. A French Woman had several hard Tubercles at the lower part of the Rectum, which occasioned a constant Tenderness, & her Stomach seemed to be the part affected. She took Cinna & other Medicines, but to no purpose, for at length the Anus became very large & Cancerous soon before she died. Sometimes without taking any Metalline Preparation, or from any other Apparent Cause, the Stools are black; this was supposed by the Patients to be occasioned by Black Bile, or Black Bilis as they called it. It is owing to Blood shed into the Intestines from an Arterial Vessel, which blood is first of its natural Colour, & is changed to a darker or darker Colour, as it goes farther from the Vessel; which was evidently the case in a body.

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a body, that Dr Hunter observed & that died with this complaint, In this case we must naturally suppose, that all Purgative Inducives will be of great detriment & the Nerve that comes away in the Dysentery is pushed out from the Colon & Rectum, particularly from the last; this was found to be the case in those bodies, that died of the Epidemic Dysentery some years ago, & Dr Hunter says, that he found the little glands of the Inducive Colon & Rectum enlarged, & full of Mucus. In Dysentery as to Forces the body may be said to be weak, for no feculent matter comes away, & if a Purgative be given, then a great quantity of hard feculent Stools are brought away. Old People have often a collection of hard Stools accumulated in the Rectum which are not discharged, till a Purgative is given: these should be broken with the finger, or a Spoon, & a Glyster thrown up to bring them away. There are a few Cases related of the Inducive being wounded & bleeding as to form with some external part of the Abdomen an Artificial Anus. Allinson has given the Case of a Man that was wouned in the side at the battle of Hamiltier, & the Weapon cut into his Colon; the divided Inducive united with the Inducement round the Wound, & made an Artificial Anus in the side. Dead wounds have frequently recovered from Wounds of their Inducive. In this Country it often happens that a Cow or an Ox gets into a field of Clover, or of Turneps, & by eating of them becomes blown up with Air in the Inducive, & is greatly distressed. The Country People to relieve the Beast pierce the Inducive in several places with a pointed knife to let out the Air, & commonly gets well after it. A Farmer that was rubbing the Tails of an horse with a long piece of wood, happened to let it go, & the horse swallowed it: some time afterwards it made its way out thro' the side of the Abdomen. Three species of Worms are commonly found in the Inducive: the first is the Tapes or round Worm like our Earth Worm: the second is the Tape Worm, the broad or the jointed Worm: the worms of this species are full of joints, & the different appearance that these

Worms

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Joins make is commonly owing to the different contraction they suffered the time of their Death. There is some variety however in the internal structure of the joints of Tape Worms. Each has a ramifying Tube within & a space in their middle. It has been disputed whether this is one Worm or a chain of Worms. But John Hunter from observing that each joint can contract itself independently of any other, is of opinion that it is a chain of Animals, adhering together, as we often see other Animals of the imperfect kind do; it is found more in Switzerland, than in any other Country. The third kind of Worm, to which Children are very much Subject, is the Ascarides, a very small Worm, & many of them are always found together in the same body. Another Worm of an extraordinary Nature has been discovered in the Lard: And last; was to have come from the body of a Man in America; but Dr Hunter, tho' he has got it & knows it, doubts the truth of the story, as he never saw any thing like it before. Much has been said about Fevers, & other Indispositions supposed to arise from Worms, because at those times Worms have been passed, but they are often passed in good health. Children especially who are said to die of worm fevers, (it is lately found) die of the Hydrocephalus Internus, & when they have been said to have died from Worms, upon opening the Bodies no Worms have been found; so that it is most likely, that Worms do little, or no mischief. In Fevers & other Illnesses Worms come away from the body for the same reason that Plats leave an house when it is on fire, as was observed to Dr Hunter by a Friend of his a Surgeon at Newcastle.

The Breast

Lecture 56

The Situation of the Breast is well known; it is a glandular body, for the secretion of milk, which it secretes only, at particular times. The glandular substance is intermixed with a considerable quantity of fat; some consider it as one gland, some as a cluster of glands; its inside is pretty flat & lays on the Pectoral Muscles. Winslow describes it as enclosed in a Capsule, but there is nothing like this appearance; the glandular part is so irregular, that the Capsule must have gone in every where round it, & if there was any it could not be missed. ^{Ed} I offer that he describes as a Capsule is only cellular Membrane. The glandular part is plainly distinguished by its white colour, from the fat which is yellow, & in great quantity, running in some parts almost thro' the body of the breast. The edges of the Breast are exceedingly irregular, & are insensibly lost on the cellular Membrane a little. Proper or kind of Tongue from the Breast runs quite into the Arm & under that anterior part of the Pectoral Muscles, which makes what Hunter calls the anterior fold of the Arm & it. Therefore when we want a Breast for Preparation we should cut it off very large, & cut we wound the edges of the Pectorals, & the injection except thro' the divided Tubuli; we should cut off a part of the Integuments of the Arm & it especially on the glandular substance in a flaccid breast feels hard & knotty, because the fat is soft & fluid between the different parts of the glandular substance, & this is more particularly the case in Old women; where there is but little fat on them the breast feels exceeding flaccid & tough as leather. Women dread Cancers and Scirrhus, and when our Judgment is asked for violent pains in the breast, we should be cautious that these knots do not deceive us; the best way to judge is to compare the bad breast,

The Breast

Breast, with the Ovary; if it feels the same we may be partly sure, it is not a
 Scirrhus Case, for it usually happens that only one Breast is Scirrhus'd once,
 & no Woman that is with Child, or that gives Suck, the glandular Substance is
 soft & red from its having a great number of Vessels that carry red blood. The
 Breast has no Center of Placification, for its blood Vessels are principally from
 the Axillary Branches; besides Arteries, Veins, & Lymphatics & Nerves, it has Lactary
 Ducts, the Tubuli Lactiferi, which have a Center of Placification at the Nipple.
 The Nipple is nothing more than a bundle of these Tubes connected together by
 Cellular Membrane, & has generally from twenty to thirty Orifices on it. The
 Tubuli are small at the Nipple, but increase as they recede from it, & become small
 again; they serve as the passages for the Milk, for the Breast has no proper Bag,
 or bladder, as the Liver & Kidneys have. When the Tubuli begin we don't
 know. Much says he could inject them with Quicksilver from the Uterus;
 but as no one else has done it, we don't know what he says. Winslow, & the present
 Professor there say, that they ascend & move down the Spaces of the Nipples,
 this don't appear to be true. There are Sebaceous Glands round the Basis of
 the Nipple in the Areola. In many young Women when with Child, the Nipple
 & Areola, alter their colour to a deep brown, or black Colour like the Skin of a
 Negro. This Change is look'd upon as a strong Mark of Pregnancy, tho' some-
 times it does not change during all the time of being with Child, after
 Delivery it commonly near assumes the former Skin's Colour. In the adult
 body there is nothing glandular under the Nipple, but there is in the Fat of
 both Male & Female, and in very young Children. It is a common thing for
 Children a few days old to have their little Breasts inflame, grow full & have
 a quantity of fluid in them similar to Milk, which when the inflammation
 has subsided, may be squeezed out in considerable quantity. I think I
 never knew one Indurated or Suppurated. There have been accounts of Milk being
 secreted

The Breast

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secreted in the Breast of a Man, but Dr Hunter never could discover any the least glandular appearance in any Man. Milk was supposed to be drawn
Chyle obtained from the blood by this gland, & in support of this doctrine, it was
said that Milk which is a fluid not yet perfected into blood, has the property of
growing sour, because it is made principally of Vegetable food, & further that the
Milk of Animals, who live on Animal food putrefies, but will not grow sour in
standing. This was generally believed, but Mr John Hunter proves the contrary
for he fed a Batch of Snipes wth Water, & nothing else, the Milk that they gave grew
as readily sour as any other Milk taken from an Animal that feeds only upon
Vegetables, from this experiment it is inconceivable that Milk is a secreted
fluid, prepared by something more than a mere separation & has two properties
given to it in the Breast. There is hardly any difference between the Milk of
different Women. One perhaps shall have it a little thicker than another, but
both are equally good for nourishment, tho' the thinnest is commonly preferred over
others so thin as to appear blue; the best way to judge of the consistence of Milk
is to catch a little in a glass, & shake it round the sides, there is a remarkable symp-
tom between the Breast & the Uterus. They increase very fast at the time of
Purification. We have accounted for this increase swelling or pregnancy from the
Evacuation being compressed by the gravid Uterus, which they say will cause
a greater quantity of blood to flow to the upper parts of the body. Now in a Dropsy
the compression of this artery is often more than during the time of pregnancy,
yet the Breast does not swell, it is plain that it cannot be explained on mechanical
principles. It is a common observation, that if the Child die in Utero, the Breast
from being fully engorged grow flaccid all at once; A Woman was bled so as to
have a Child in Utero killed, three or four days afterwards the Breast swelled very
much, & six or seven days after the Child came away, quite putrid; in one severe
Labour might be said to bleed on the Death of the Child, & then in three or four
Days, after the usual time after Delivery, she began to make ready the Breast for
the secretion

the secretion of the Milk - That Milk which is secreted is not drawn out of the Breasts, is absorbed into the Constitution; while the Milk is going off, there is commonly a little fever with Digestion, and the Lymphatic glands in the Axilla swell from the Retention of Milk. It is a general Rule at this time to keep the Milk Warm, & rub the Breasts with warm Oil, & if they grow hot, & fiery to apply a poultice, & leave them to break of themselves, & a fluxion. Do to supply nothing but poultices, & they will almost do well. Cancer hardly ever comes from the Milk Abscess, or the sore that is left by the Abscess so seldom, that I shou'd most know but one Case of Cancer, that was ever suspected of this beginning. Substernus may be Absorbed from the Skin of the Breast, & lodged within the Gland. A Lady had used some Camphorated Spirit of Wine to her Breast, which was inflamed, but before it suppurated, she discontinued the use of it, when the Abscess broke, the Matter smelt offensively strong of Camphire, this here had been used for a Weeknight.

The Lungs

They are divided into the right & left. The Substance of the One has no Connection with that of the Other. Each Lung is subdivided into Lobes, the left is always divided into two by an Oblique Fissure; the right Lobe has a little fissure, & another small one, so that it is divided into two large, & one small portion. Each Lobe seems to be composed of smaller Lobes, & between them run the Lymphatic Vessels. In figure they represent exactly an Iris Root; they are everywhere loose except just where the great Vessels enter; anteriorly they make a Concavity in which the Pleura in its Pleural Sac is lodged. The great Vessels enter immediately in the middle of the Lungs; on the inside this part is called the Root of the Lung. The great Vessels support the Respiratory Arteries which divide into two branches, one to

The Lungs

one to each Lung, and enter behind the Blood Vessels; secondly the Blood Vessels are the Pulmonary Artery and Veins. The Artery just behind the Aorta divides into two branches, both of which go to the Lungs, the right is by much the longest; the left is very short. From each Lung two Pulmonary Veins come, which soon enter the left Ventricle of the Heart behind, & a little below all the other Vessels from the Heart. The lower part of sides of the Trachea latera are composed of a number of Cartilaginous rings, called the Sigmoid Cartilages, their ends are joined together by a Membranous, or Muscular Substance, so that the Canal is Cartilaginous before and laterally, and Muscular behind; each ring is joined to that above and below it by a Ligamentous Substance, which is a little Elastic. All along the Muscular part are small grains supposed to be Glands, called by Magnagnie the Tracheal Glands. The Trachea is lined internally with a smooth Membrane, which is a continuation of the Internal Membrane of the Mouth. These Sigmoid Cartilages as they approach the Bifurcation of the Trachea, become more & more irregular till their form is quite lost. The Trachea has this particular Structure to resist the pressure of the Atmosphere, and retain a passage for the Air into the Lungs. If the Trachea had been a flexible Tube like the Larynx we could not have breathed, because it wider in Inspiration would be closed as the Cheeks are drawn inward, and here would not have been so well as Cartilage, because every branch in Inspiration must stretch, and bend considerably; the Structure of the Trachea is different in different Animals. The Tracheal Glands secrete a Mucus, which serves to keep the internal Surface moist; the thinnest part of this Mucus is carried off by the Hair, while the thicker stagnates; now had the Trachea been Cartilaginous all round, this Mucus could not be carried up, because the inspired Air would press it, as much

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as much down, as the Action of the Diaphragm in coughing would throw it up, but the Muscular part can so contract the passage in Expiration, that the Air cannot pass without forcing it out. Besides the Blood carried into the Lungs by the Pulmonary Arteries (which may be considered as bad Blood from having gone to nourish the bronchial Artery: Galen knew this fact, and that it was a Blood Vessel) the Extremities of the Ar. Vessel terminate in very small Cells, which become apparent on injecting quicksilver into the Trachea, and drying the Lungs. It has been supposed that the Extremity of each Ar. Vessel was dilated, and formed its own proper Cells. The Lungs have Lymphatic Vessels, which run on their surface between the Plevura, these pass thro' Lymphatic Glands placed principally in the Angle between the two branches of the Trachea, they are of a bluish Colour like the Colour of the Lungs themselves.

3

The Use of the Lungs

Lecture 5th

The Lungs are undoubtedly, for Respiration a Sort of the Organs of Inspiration are active, as the Respiratory Muscles, by these the Vides; others are passive as the Lungs, which perhaps are a little active in Expiration by their Elasticity. The Chest may be considered as the Boards of a pair of bellows, the Lungs are the cavity of the Bellows, & the Trachea as the pipe of the bellows: when the Chest is dilated there is a Vacuum within the Lungs, & the Air rushes in, this is Inspiration; when the Chest contracts it presses against the Lungs, & expels out the Air, this is Expiration: there is never any Air in the Chest, tho' this has been contradicted; For if you immerse a body under Water, & pendure the Chest the Water will rush in, but no Air comes out for no Bubble arises, provided that no Air is let loose into the Chest by Respiration. It is said that the Blood is squeezed & compressed in the Lungs; In Inspiration there can be no compression, for every thing within is then entirely passive, Compression does not begin till the time of Expiration. Expiration seems to be the most natural State of the Lungs, & more passive than Inspiration; for their Elasticity contracts them to a flaccid state, & expels the Air, & is therefore the last Action of Life; their own Weight tends to contract them. The Reason of the Successive Alteration of this Motion has not as yet been made out, tho' many have contended for it; It is a mixed Motion, that is, voluntary & involuntary. Some Physiologists have said that the Nerves are compressed in Inspiration by the Action of the Muscles, which then become flaccid, and Expiration follows from the Elasticity of the Cartilage of the Ribs & Lungs, & then the Muscles acting as before, the same thing follows again; but the Muscles are made to act very strongly in Expiration. This Motion is something necessary to Life, for if it be stopped

The Use of the Lungs

stopped, it grows uneasy, & cannot continue stopping it any longer, & therefore
as Whist says, it is a motion in which the Nerves are chiefly concerned; It is very
plain, that it is not made out by any Physiologists. Generally but a small quantity
of Air is thrown in & out at one time in an easy unobtrusive Respiration. Since
Dr Hales's Experiments on Expiration all Anatomists agree that the blood circulates
quicker in the Lungs, than in any other part. Dr Hales makes it 20 times
quicker; If this was the Case we should find the Coats of the Pulmonary
Artery thicker than they are, but they are weaker & thinner than in any other Artery.
The Blood that has been carried to all parts of the body by the branches of the
Aorta, is unfit for that use again till it has passed thro' the Lungs. If the
Animal has but fresh Air thrown into its Lungs, it is not necessary they should
act to continue their life, for Dr Hook opened a Dog's Chest, & made several
punctures into the Lungs, then he put the pipe of a pair of bellows into the
Trachea by the Mouth, & by forcing in fresh Air kept the Lungs constantly distended
& the Air made its way out at the Incisions, by this means the the Lungs moved
not at all, the Dog continued living & strong for a length of time, till he killed him.
This Motion dont correspond to the Motion of the Heart, for the we say Inspiration
voluntarily, the pulse continues just the same, unless we force it exceedingly;
after Death the Lungs are always found distended with Air, the quantity of
Air that is inspired at the last of Life, is not afterwards all thrown out in
Expiration, for the Chest not closely compressing the Lungs, they contain always
some Air in their state of greatest Expiration. Some Animals, have no Lungs
In Fish Respiration is carried on by the Gills. All Animals that have breathed
require fresh Air, tho' Fish dont require it so often as we do. The Child in Utero
lives without breathing, but it has a Circulation from the Placenta which answers
the same Purpose, & if the Naval String is compressed the Child dies. Whatever
interrupts Respiration in a breathing Animal, kills it in a few minutes. It
was said that an hanged Person died merely from Expiration being stopped but
not from

The Use of the Lunge

not from Apoplexy by the Vertebrae of the Neck being compressed so that the Blood accumulates in the head; Others have said that the Spinal Marrow is crushed by the Vertebrae being broken & last as they say People die by reason the Neck is not broken & when People are apoplectick they don't always die immediately, but lie motionless for some Days, how longed People live in a few Minutes always, so that their Death depends upon the Obstruction of Respiration, without which we cannot live above five Minutes. It has been said that drowned People die from the quantity of water swallowed down; but it is found that the quantity of water is always very small. Others have said that a Drowned Animal was suffocated from taking water into the Lunge. But in fact it does not, for never any is taken in till the Animal is become senseless. It dies from losing the benefit of Respiration as those do that die from being hanged. The Dutch have lately attended a good Deal to the reviving of People recently hanged, or drowned, & in many Cases they have succeeded. To be of service this Way, we must take any Method for giving warmth & Circulation, by rubbing the body all over with any thing that is harsh, we must force fresh Air into the Lunge which is the best Stimulus, & get warm Cordials into the Stomach to invigorate, Warm Wine should therefore be syringed into the Stomach by a flexible Tube put down the Oesophagus, by these Means People may perhaps be revived who otherwise would have been lost. When People die suddenly, it is called Apoplexy & commonly happens from the rupture of some principal blood vessel near the Heart, or perhaps from a rupture of the Heart itself. The late King's Death was occasioned by the bursting of the right Artery so that the blood got into the Pleural cavity, & he expired immediately. Mr John Hunter that no Animal is completely as we accept the term, for a Turtle has Lunge & must breathe, tho' he can live for a considerable time without breathing so can a Dove, & so can a Deaf, but they must breathe after a longer or shorter space of time. he observes that Fish will die in Ponds that are frozen for want of Air, but if the Ice is broken they are not affected & Fresh Air is fatal to Animals.

The Use of the Lungs

Animal, & as is inflammable Air. The common Atmospheric Air is the only Air that is fit for Respiration, & will support us in Life very well from 16 to 18° above the common of a Barometrical Barometer. The Atmosphere Air contains some quality for Respiration, & for the burning of fire it has its *Pabulum Vita* & *Flammae*, this *Pabulum* is consumed by Respiration, & Fire, & then the remaining Air is unfit for either & will kill an Animal, or put out fire; this is one of the Discoveries of Dr. Priestley, the Dr. further observes, that Air which has had its *Pabulum Vita* destroyed by an Animal having breathed it, will have its *Pabulum* renewed by fire burning in it, so as to be again fit for Respiration; on the contrary, that Air which has had its *Pabulum Flammae* destroyed by fire burning in it, & extinguished the fire, will have its *Pabulum* renewed by an Animal breathing in it, so as to become again fit for fire to burn in it. An Animal does not die nor does a Fire go out, till the *Pabulum* of Life, or of Fire is destroyed. The *Pabulum* of the One is different from that of the other. The fixed Air that is not loose from the dissolution of bodies floats in the Atmospheric Air, & would accumulate, & render the other unfit for Respiration but it is absorbed by Water, especially by running Water, so that it never accumulates so much as to make the Atmospheric Air totally unfit for Respiration. For this reason it is that places situated high to running Water are most healthy. Fixed Air is heavier than Atmospheric Air; this is particularly evident in the Volcano del Cono, in Italy for in this Cave there is always a considerable quantity of fixed Air, which being heavier than the Atmospheric Air falls down, & covers the ground only to a certain height above the Surface, all above that is Atmospheric Air, so that if a Dog goes into the Cave, his head not being higher than the fixed Air, he is killed directly by it, but if a Man goes in, his head being higher than the fixed Air, he can remain there with impunity as long as he pleases. Dr. Priestley finds that Air made unfit for Respiration by it's having been breathed in, is again made fit for a Plant growing in it. The *Pabulum Vita* is restored by Vegetation going forward in it. It is a question what immediate Use Respiration is of to an Animal? The Ancients supposed it gave the ~~Animal~~ ^{Animal} quickening heat, but that does not depend upon Respiration. Mr. John Hunter thinks that heat arises from some Animal Process within, that is not understood.

The Use of the Lungs

Understood, & that we have in us a principle of heat & cold that cold is generated in us as well as heat in. The standard of heat is about 98 of Fahrenheit's Thermometer; in all degrees of the Atmosphere, and an Animal generates more or less heat in proportion as he loves more by its flying off to heat the surrounding Atmosphere, for if that is hot he will generate but little, because he loves but little; if that is cold he will generate more because he loves more; he finds there is a principle to generate cold, for a man in the cold fit of an degree, or that grows sick at the stomach, grows warmer cold externally, than if he were inanimate, & previously heated to the same degree; he finds that the Animal juices are proof against freezing, till a life is destroyed, for a fish cannot be frozen till after it is killed by the cold, & till it is killed it will keep the water immediately surrounding for some little distance, in a fluid state. It was thought that an Animal would be killed by the heat arising from the many Processes going on within it, were it not for the loss of Respiration cooling it; but this is wrong, for the heat of a man's body is the same internally, in cold as in hot weather, & is never killed by an Atmosphere, considerably above its own standard of 98 Degrees of Fahrenheit's Thermometer. Many have laboured to discover the effect which Respiration produces on the Blood, but no one has yet made it out. Mr John Hunter thinks that it carries off some noxious Effluvia from the Lungs, & thus keeps us alive; but he can make out no more, than that it is necessary for a life, & that it alters the Colour of the Blood. Respiration is of use to us in washing & in cooling the Air serves us as a Vehicle for the noxious Effluvia, but its most principal Use is that it gives Ours, on Inspiration we produce Pure Blood.

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Diseases of the Lungs

Lecture 38

Difficulty of Respiration may arise from various causes: Water in the Cavity of the Chest on the outer Surface of the Lungs will produce it by preventing their being duly expanded. In this case it is a common Symptom for People to awake out of their sleep in frightful horrors with Palpitations of the Heart: If the Water is only in one side of the Cavity, yet it presses the fleshy parts towards the other side, so affects that: People with this Complaint can always lay best on the diseased Side, because this side is in a manner undressed, if they lay on the well side, the weight of the body presses on the ribs of that side, which is a great impediment to their Action: Water in the Abdomen, presses the Diaphragm upwards, which makes People with this disease breath best in an erect posture, because then the Weight of the Water will tend downwards, but if they lay down, it requires great force of the Muscles to counteract its pressure. In Scrophulous habits, sometimes the whole Cellular Membrane of the Lungs shall be full of Water, while perhaps there is but little Water in the Cavity of the Thorax: we cannot distinguish this Case from the other by the Symptoms, it can only be done by dissection after Death or Air extravasated in the Substance of the Lungs or Cavity of the Thorax has the same Effect as Water because it takes up Room: This was one Symptom in the Black Cattle, when they were diseased in such great numbers about years ago, they had a general Emphysema, & Air was extravasated in the Lungs. The most common Disease of the Lungs is Inflammation & Suppuration: the common consequence of inflammation on the external Surface is Adhesion to the Pleura: when Suppuration happens it leads on to the true Pulmonary Consumption: the Matter which is formed having no depending vessel is coughed up: Consumptions are most frequent from Puberty, to the Age of 25, & most common to Scrophulous habits: Persons so afflicted are apt to cough up a loose, very hard Mucus, & sometimes substances in form of

concreting

The Diseases of the Lungs & The Heart 3.

ramifying, Arteries, these are not blood Arteries, but infarcted Arteries, which by stagnating in the Vessels takes their form; in each case there is a disposition in the Trachea to form an Aphthous Rust similar to those sometimes found in the mouth - it is this matter covering the flesh that gives it that peculiar Appearance.

The Heart is the great Engine of Circulation; it is composed of four muscular bags, placed between the termination of the Veins, & the beginning of the Arteries (Two from which the Veins arise, the Auricles; & two from whence the Arteries arise, the Ventricles, its Apex or point is pretty regular, its Basis irregular; its underside is flattened & lies upon the Diaphragm; it has an Oblique position in the body, its Apex lying forwards & a little towards the left side, but the middle part between the right & left Pulmonary Veins directly backwards; then the Heart is in its proper position. It is divided into the right & left Auricle & Ventricle: but Windsor on account of the Oblique position chooses to call them the Anterior, Posterior, Cordis, Septum Auricularum & Ventriculorum. The Veins terminate in the Auricles, as far from the Apex as possible, two in the right, & four in the left; the Arteries arise from the Ventricle nearer to the Apex than the Auricles. The two Auricles are applied to each other at their lower part, but there is a vacant space between them at their upper part, which is filled up by the two Arteries which decussate, each other at their beginning. The right Auricle was called by the Latins the Sinus of the Vena Cava, & the left Auricle was called the Sinus of the Femoral Arteries; & the two little fleshy Appendages to the Auricles were by them called the Auricles, or little Vans from their supposed resemblance to the Vans of some Animals. The Use of these Appendages seems only to be to fill up the vacant space, that the Heart may lie close, & compact in the Pericardium. The Heart must be always injected in its Pericardium, that it may keep to its proper figure when distended. The descending & Descending Vena Cava enter the right Auricle in an inclined direction to one another, as do both to direct their blood toward the middle of the Cavity making an eminence called Tuberculum Cordis; the great Coronary Vein enters the underside of the Auricle, the sides of the Auricles are every where thin, tho' in some parts thicker than in others.

It may

The Heart

It may be asked what prevents the blood from regurgitating into the Cava Superior when the Auricle contracts, as there is no Valve there. Dr Hunter supposes, that the Muscular fibres first begin to contract there, & by that means serve the purpose of one; this then may be a little regurgitation. In the Cava Inferior there is a little fold of the inner coat called Valvula Inflexa, & certainly however is not a Valve, for it is often fasciculated like Paws with little propulsion in it; the Muscular fibres here supply the want of a Valve. In the Septum Auricularem immediately below the Tuberculum Foveolae is the Mark where the Foramen Ovale was in the Foetus, sometimes it is found open in the Adult. Between the Cava Inferior & the passage into the Ventricle is the Orifice of the great Coronary Vein. In that part of the Auricle which is far removed from the Orifices, the sides are fasciculated like Paws, to shew, & once the blood better where there was great danger of its stagnation. The Auricle by its contraction throws the blood into the right Ventricle, which is a strong Muscular bag, fasciculated at its lower part, & has fleshy Pillars going across from side to side. The Orifice between the Auricle & Ventricle is surrounded by Valves with loose flopping edges projecting into the Ventricle, these are called Valvula Tricuspidis, it is however but one Membrane continued round with three points, therefore should be called Valvula Tricuspidis. The Pulmonary Artery arises from the Ventricle & afterwards divides into two branches, one to each Lung; at its beginning are three Valves, called Valvula Semilunares, whose loose flopping edges meet one another when the blood presses from the Artery, & prevent regurgitation by stopping up the Artery entirely. This Artery carries the blood which may be considered as bad blood, & the Lungs to be improved, it is brought back again to the Heart by the four pulmonary Veins, two from each Lung which enter the left Auricle upon the Septum Auricularem of the Auricle the remains of the Foramen Ovale may be seen plainly. The Pulmonary Veins have no Valves at their Entrance into the Auricle, but we suppose that the Muscular fibres of the Auricle begin their contraction at the Orifices of the Veins, so as to shut up these

Cavity

Cavity & prevent coagulation. The internal surface of this Ventricle is smooth because there being four valves running into it, the blood should not stagnate. The left Ventricle & Ventricle annexes to what has been said of the right, only that they are much stronger. & the Ventricle goes down almost to the apex, which the other does not. It was however, that the Ventricle should be much stronger than the other, because it throws the blood to all parts of the body, while the right only carries it to the Lungs. The Ventricle is finely fasciculated towards the apex, but where the blood could not possibly stagnate it is smooth. Between the Ventricle & Ventricle are placed the Valvulae Atriales, so called from their supposed resemblance of the two sides of a Ventricle; properly it is but one Valve, Valvula Atrialis, it produces the Corda Ventriculi that terminate in the Cornua Colossae, which are so situated as to leave as clear a space as possible for the passage of the blood. The Corda begins at the Ventricle, & has three semilunar Valves at its beginning like as in the Pulmonary Artery, at the place where the Valves make a middle part with each other is placed a small protuberance on each, call'd the Conspex Semiovalis of Julius Casar Aesculapian.

The very first & branches that the Corda gives off are the two Cornua Inferiora, the right & left. These appear on the body of the heart, one on each side of the Pulmonary Artery, before they descend it away where except the upper & inferior part immediately before the beginning of that Artery, & these branches anastomose at that place; there is a common Opinion that these Arteries are not filled at the same time, as the others are, because it was thought that the Valves of the Corda would press on their Orifices & prevent their being filled during the Systole, but the Experience is contrary, not true. There is but one Principal Cordary Vein, which divides it into the right Ventricle, all the Physicians say that little branches of these Veins open into the right Ventricle, & in a less degree into the left, & call them the Foramina Thebæica, but Dr Hunter says there are no such in the human Heart. Mr Cruikshank has seen them in a Bull-dog's Heart. The Structure of the Heart is undoubtedly Muscular. Galen did not allow it to be a Muscle! he defines a Muscle to be a part that Contracts Voluntarily, and therefore we need not wonder,

The Heart

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is evident that he disallows it; being a Traveler more especially as he was unacquainted with the Circulation. No one understood how the principal part of the muscular fibres were in the Heart in the first place because the branches of the Coronary Vessels intercept them, & secondly the fibres of the right & wide infundibulum with those of the left so that they cannot be traced. The greatest number of them are fixed to the Tendinous Ring around the Aorta, they then go down from the Base & form a kind of ^{net} ~~net~~ at the Apex, & are lost in the Columna Carnea, some fibres were common to both Ventricles, & a great number proper to the left Ventricle. It is quite enough to know that these fibres by their Action diminish the Cavities of the Heart, & shorten it in every course. The Internal Membrane of the Ventricle is continued to form the internal Membrane of the Auricular Ventricle, & so go on to the Aorta, and its doubling makes Valves.

The Circulation of the Blood

Letter 29th

The General Circulation of the Blood has been commonly divided into two, that which goes to all the parts of the body by the Arteries, & returns by the Venae Cavae is called the larger Circulation; that which goes to the Lungs by the Pulmonary Artery, & returns by the Pulmonary Veins is called the lesser Circulation. The Blood cannot be said to have gone the Circulation till it has gone thro' both these; And a man unless he understood both could not be said to know the Circulation — Galen made out a very plausible Theory which was the Standard of the Antients in their Opinion of the Heart. He supposed that there were three general Fluids in the body of great importance to Life, besides several of an inferior Nature, as the Saliva, Semen &c. One of which they called the Nervous fluid made in the Brain, & carried to all parts by the Nerves for sensation & Motion; the second the Vital Spirit for warmth, made up in the left Ventricle, & carried by the Arteries to all parts, they said it was finer & of a lighter red Colour than blood; they thought that the Pulmonary Veins conveyed Air from this Range, & therefore called them Arteries, but seeing that they had Coats like Veins, they named them the Venal Arteries; they thought that a finer part of the blood transuded thro' the Septum Cordis from the right into the left Ventricle; that this finer part mix'd together with the Air brought from the Range made the Vital Spirit. The third, the Nutritious fluid the Blood, which they supposed to be made by the Liver from the Chyle Absorbed from the Intestine by the Mesenteric Veins, & carried into it by the Vena Portacum, that the Blood when made was carried out of the Liver by the Hepatic Veins, into the Vena Cava, they supposed that the Hepatic Veins made the Vena Cava above the Liver, which they called the Vena Cava Superior, which was dilated at the Heart into a large Vein, that by this the blood went to the Heart to have the finer part percolated from it to make the Vital Spirit; that the Coarser was continued into a Vein we call the

Vena Cava

The Circulation of the Blood

Vena Cava Superior; that the blood which did not pass by the Vena Superior nor wash thence into the Left Ventricle was carried by the Pulmonary Artery (which they called a Vein) to the Lungs for their nourishment, they supposed that the Vena Cava below the Puir carried blood to all the lower parts of the body; they did not suppose that the Blood circulated as we do, but said that it had an Efflux & Reflux, in the Veins almost stagnating. The Circulation of the Blood may be proved in this manner; make a Ligature on a Vein, and it will subside on that side next the heart, & swell on the other side; open it above the Ligature, & it will not bleed, but open it below, & it will bleed till more blood is obtained, than the limb could contain; this proves that the Blood moves in the Veins towards the Heart, & that they communicate with other Vessels; next make the same experiment on an Artery, & the Phenomenon is directly reversed, which proves that the blood in them moves from the Heart towards the Extremities; when a Vein is bleeding stop the Artery by which the blood is carried into that Vein, & the bleeding stops, which clearly proves that the Arteries & Veins communicate. In this manner we trace the blood on to the head & when there we find from its Structure that the Blood must of necessity go the round of the Circulation. What puzzled Harvey a little, & was thought to be a strong Argument against the Circulation was this; it was observed that the Carotid Artery which did pulsate above the Ligature, & bled if punctured there, so that his Opponents said, that it carried blood down from the Head as well as up to it; but this Objection he soon got over, when he observed that this happened in consequence of the branches of one Carotid, anastomosing with those of the others. Physicians observing that they had no way of entering Medicines into the blood but by the Mouth (that by ^{the Artery} they had a way) conceived an Idea of trying what Effect they would have on the circulation when injected immediately in the blood by injecting them in the Veins accordingly

The Circulation of the Blood

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accordingly it was tried, but it was found that a fluid, which is innocent when taken in the mouth, was exceedingly hurt full when introduced into the Veins immediately, it was tried on many Animals. Mr John Hunter found that an infusion of Spiccasoon injected into the Veins of a Dog had the same Effect as if it had been received into the Stomach by the Mouth, for that I know but infused into the Veins of another Dog brought on Suffocation & Death. A Question was afterwards started, whether there may not be a disease of the fluids alone, or in other words, whether we may not become old & diseased, our blood being worn out, or become bad? And if this is the Case, whether Blood transfused from a young or an healthy body into us would not make us young, & healthy again. Sir Christopher Wren, Mr Boyle & I thought it up handsly, and experiments were made on many different Animals, but was thought to succeed, but was soon after laid aside, for what reason is not certainly known; When Dr Harvey published his Account of the Circulation, it was very much opposed, & ill treated, but the more benevolent People gradually came into his doctrine & yet would not allow him to be the Discoverer, for said they Hippocrates & others of the Ancients knew it, & made very trifling quotations with a View to support their ill-natured assertions: But it is certain that Hippocrates & all the Greek Writers were ignorant of it. Leaving those who were more ancient we come down to Avicenna, who was born at Villeneuve in the Year 1093, therefore he call'd himself Villanovanus, in 1131 he published a little Treatise de Trinitate Veritatis, & some years after he came to Paris & attended Anatomy under Formisely, & was the immediate Successor of Rivalius, in the year 1540 he settled as a Physician at Lyons, but his inclinations leading him more to the study of Divinity than Physic, he lived principally by the Book-sellers at Lyons, His Death was brought on by Calver, & his Adversaries, in 1553 he was burnt at Geneva on account of the Errors he was said to have advanced in his Theological Treatises. He was accused by Calvin of not only being an Heretic, but an Atheist, in many many, but by candid ways (calling him Nichola Villanovanus) that he was both a learned &

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learned of a good man & instructing of the Divinity of the three Persons in the Trinity in his book de Trinitate &c. &c. &c. he recollected the three humours of the body, & used them by way of simile, and as he proceeded his words plainly shewed, that he understood the Circulation of the Blood thro' the Lungs as Harvey afterwards made it out to be, but he did not know the other Circulation. — One has given the discovery of the Circulation to Riccius, others to Clombius, but they knew no more of it than Sewidius had told them. Cesalpinus knew the Circulation from the Porta to the Vena Cava, for he said that Compression on the Veins proved it; but he had a very confused Idea of the Circulation in the Head, for he said that the Blood was sometimes carried up there by the Arteries, & down by the Veins, and sometimes vice versa, & that in Sleep the Circulation was either languid, or ceased altogether. — It is wonderful therefore, from what Sewidius & Cesalpinus had said, that no Person made out the Circulation before Harvey's turn. The thought does not appear to have arisen in any Persons mind, but Wharfeday, Cesalpinus, & Harvey's. Harvey says he was led to think of it from observing the Valves in the Veins.


The Circulation of the Blood

Lecture 60th

With regard to the beginning of the circulation Dr Harvey who observed the progress of the Chick in the incubated Egg, supposed that the Blood was formed before the Heart or any thing else; that it was the primitive viscum; that it stimulated the Heart to begin its action, but he had not the help of Glasse & Malpighi in inspecting the incubated Egg with microscopes: he saw the rudiments of the Chick before there was any appearance of red blood, but could not determine which was the first appearance of Life. With regard to the end of the circulation Dr Harvey thought there was motion in the Blood after the heart had ceased to act & that the immediate cause of the Heart's motion was the stimulus of the warm blood. Haller opened the Chest of a Dog & observed that the left Ventricle died first, then the left Atricle, then the right Ventricle, & lastly the right Atricle; and he found that by tying the Vena Cava, & thus intercepting the blood, he could make the right Ventricle & Atricle die first of all. Much has been said about the force of the Heart, that is, what is commonly meant the force of the left Ventricle. Mathematicians have differed greatly in their Computations for want of Data to reason on. Borelli determined it to be equal to 135000 pound weight, and Hall by taking the best Data he could, made it equal to 27ij. Dr Jurin after them took Surge, he said that both were in the wrong, & that it was wrong to make it equal to such weight that we ought to say it is equal to a body of such a Weight moving with such a Velocity in a given time, & therefore he makes it equal to nine pounds one ounce moving with the Velocity of an Inch in a second of time. It is plain that Borelli in supposing it equal to 135000 thousand Pounds Weight had erred, for the Valves between the Atricle & Ventricle could not have withstood it. When a Child's Heart being deeper of itself it is a very rare Case that an Hemorrhage occurs, but after Death by injecting the Cord a

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The Aorta some of the injection is easily forced out at the navel, a proof that the action of the Heart in the living body is not considerable. Various Calculations have been made of the quantity of blood in a body, & By Blood we mean all that fluid which has circulated thro' the Heart. Dr. Mead supposed that a body weighing 160 pounds contained 100 pounds of blood, but there does not appear to be any possible means of determining it, for if we bleed Animals to death, we cannot be supposed to get out all the blood. The only action of the Muscles depends on the blood. It is the common opinion that the Heart is active in Contraction, & passive in Dilatation, but it appears that there is something active in it's Diastole, as well as in the Systole, for if a Circular piece of a Swell's heart be cut off, it will both dilate & contract itself, & if the blood is removed. Some have endeavored to account for the pulsation of the Heart against the Ribs by supposing that the Muscular fibres of the Heart run in the form of this figure  & that in the Systole there was a twisting or lengthening of the fibres, so that they, if at the Systole the Heart contracts in all it's parts from the Apex to the Base, it must be drawn from the Ribs instead of beating against them. The reason is this, the Aorta is at the beginning curved: The force with which the blood is thrown from the Heart tends to straighten the Aorta, by striking against it's sides, that it can't do, because the Aorta is fixed by the spine, & therefore the Heart recoils with a jerk, when a person is sitting quite still with one knee up so the that we can see the foot move at each pulsation of the A. Arterie from the blood endeavoring to run in a straight line, & the motion will be more manifest in proportion as the action of the heart is stronger. The proportion between the quantity of blood capable of being contained in the right & the quantity capable of being contained in the left sides of the heart cannot be determined. For in the first place, where do the Ventrals terminate? It is the general opinion that the right side is smaller than the left, tho' it is plain the same quantity of blood must pass thro' each, neither can we determine the proportion between the Auricles & the Ventrals, because we can't draw the line of partition.

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partation between them with any cordency. By the Valves Haller imagines that the Heart contract, so as to squeeze out every drop of blood, that the Sacra Columna fall into the Sacra space. Harvey & almost every body else supposed that the two Ventricles acted together; if so, the Arteries & Arteries must of course do the same; that the Contraction of the Ventricle makes the Dilatation of the Artery, & the Contraction of the Artery makes the Dilatation of the Ventricle, so that the Arteries & the Arteries act together. Dr. Nicholl thinks that the Arteries & Arteries, & Arteries on the right side, are contracted at the same time that the Arteries & Arteries, & Arteries on the left side, and alternately first the Arteries, then the Arteries, and then the Arteries. Dr. Hunter has no doubt of Harvey's being in the right; for he opened a Lamb & made a little puncture in each Ventricle, thro' which he observed the blood to come at the same constant. This he told to Dr. Nicholl, but that said that the right Ventricle being thin, the blood would come out at the puncture as out of a hole in the bladder, & that the left Ventricle being thick the muscular fibres would contract the Orifice of the puncture, & act as a Valve when they were contracting in their systole, and that it was at the time of their Relaxation that the blood would come thro' it, so that the blood would come thro' from the right Ventricle at the Systole, & from the left Ventricle in the Diastole. Dr. Hunter then repeated the experiment by thrusting two small Trocars, one into each Ventricle, & then the Trocars being with drawn, & the Canula left in, the blood came thro' both the Canulae at the same time during the Systole. As the Office of the Heart is so important, I cannot see that great Diseases, Adhesions between it & the Pericardium are very frequent which may probably be the Cause of Palpitation, & those little irregularities in the Pulse which we sometimes meet with. We sometimes find too great a quantity of Liquor in the Pericardium, & frequently the Valves of the Heart are found partly dissolved. In those who survive almost instantly, the Cause is commonly in the Heart, or one of its principal Vessels. Tho' it has been generally supposed that they died from a disease of the Brain, The Spleen is often found inflamed, & sometimes suppurated, which was the case with the late Lord Middleton, & D. Pate. Both complained of great Pain, & yet it was very extraordinary, neither of them could describe the Seat of their Pain, tho' at

The Diseases of the Spleen, Pancreas, & Liver

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tho' at times it was exceeding violent as to make them cry and moan vehemently. Sometimes it is found whipt up almost to nothing, & sometimes is greatly enlarged, yet often returns to its natural size. A woman after Delivery had much a fullness & hardness at the bottom of the Abdomen, that she was thought to have another Child within her, but by examining the Uterus with a probe, it was found contracted, so that there could be no other Child remaining. The Woman died. Upon opening the body, the Spleen was found greatly enlarged, & had changed its situation, so as to give the appearance of a Child or Uterus when the Abdomen was examined. That thing called an Abscess is supposed to be an indurated Spleen, but Dr Hunter could never get an opportunity to dissect one who died of this Disease. The PANCREAS seems to be the part the most seldom diseased of any other in the body. Dr Hunter has known an enlarged & painous Pancreas the Cause of Jaundice by its pressing on the Ductus Communis Cholidachus, & Mr John Hunter once found the Pancreas distended, & full of hard white Concretions. The LIVER is often found inflamed, & adhering to the neighbouring parts, sometimes it is suppurated, but this is always of a bloody Liver colour. It is often found full of little Spots, Tubercles, & small collections of Pus interspersed thro' it. Cysts of a peculiar nature are frequently found in the Liver, these bags which sometimes contain Water, sometimes Hydatids; often the bag is lined with a gelatinous Membrane, & there is then only one Hydatid; sometimes it contains hundreds of Hydatids. By an Hydatid we mean a body detached all round, commonly swimming in Water, sometimes containing Water, at other times they appear flattened & gelatinous; there is no Appearance of Vessels, or Organization in their Texture, yet some of the Antients and moderns have supposed them to be Worms. When these Cysts are situated on the back part of the Liver, they infallibly destroy the Patient; if on the fore part, they sometimes point outwards & burst, but they generally prove fatal.

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Lecture 61st

We take the Arteries first, & then the Veins, & because of removing them to come at the Aorta. We take first the Arteries of the lower Abdominal Viscera. The Aorta between the Diaphragm, & the Bifurcation of the Iliacs gives off three Arteries - First as it comes from under the Diaphragm it gives off the Celiac, to the Stomach, Liver, & Spleen, & Pancreas, then the Superior Mesenteric, & entirely principally to the small Intestines, & then the Inferior Mesenteric gives principally to the large Intestines. The Celiac is the largest of the three; the Inferior Mesenteric is the smallest. The Celiac gives off the Coronary to the Stomach, the Hepatic to the Liver, & the Splenic Artery, which running along the upper part of the Pancreas to the Spleen, gives off the Vasa brevia to the Stomach, immediately above the Duodenum, the Superior Mesenteric artery, & the Duodenum, passes under it, & runs, & what is called the root of the Mesentery. It gives off branches every where to the Mesentery as far as the Termination of the Ileum, & partly to the great Gut of the Colon. These branches anastomose very freely on the Mesentery, & then send straight branches to the Intestines. The principal branch of the Inferior Mesenteric Artery goes down obliquely on the left side along with the Sigmoid flexure of the Colon behind the Pectus quite down to the Anus. The other branch runs to the right side, & is distributed chiefly to the Mesocolon. These are the Arteries issuing from the lower Abdominal Viscera. The Aorta gives off, first the two Coronary Arteries, & then very small branches to the middle part of the Chest, the Thyroid Gland, the diaphragm &c. From the upper part of the Curvature go off three branches, first the right Carotid, & secondly, the right Subclavian; secondly, the left Carotid, and thirdly, the left Subclavian. The branches of the Carotid run in the same direction, each side the Carotid runs up close to the Vertebræ, near to, but rather behind the Trachea Arteria, & Esophagus. It runs the farthest of any Artery

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Artery in the body without branching, at the upper part of the Truncus it divides into two branches, the external and internal Carotid, so named not from their situation, but from the parts to which they are distributed. The external Carotid soon divides into many branches, the first which goes off is the Superior Guttural, which carries an amazing quantity of blood to the Thyroid Gland, but for what purpose is not known, it also distributes some blood to the Tongue & neighbouring parts, the next branch is the Inferior Guttural, the next branch is the Genual, which mounts over the lower jaw, & Buccinator & gives off a pretty considerable branch to the upper & lower Lip: this Artery runs in a serpentine direction as do all those which cover parts liable to be stretched. The next branch, or rather the second of the external Carotid Artery, runs up behind the Parotid Gland, & the lower jaw, emerges just before the ear, mounts upon the Temple, & then divides into two principal branches, which distribute the blood to the neighbouring parts: in its way to the Temple it gives off a branch inwards, the internal Maxillary of the upper jaw, from which goes the Superior Maxillary down to the Canal in the lower jaw together that along with the Nerve, it gives off also another little branch which goes thro' an hole in the Basis of the Skull to the Dura Mater, the Artery of the Dura Mater

The Arteries

Lecture 62

The Internal Carotid enters the Skull at the Anterior point of the Temporal Bone, passes upwards, gets upon the Os Sphenoides, to the Sella Turcica on the inside of the Optic Nerve, where it sends off a branch to the Orbit, it pierces the Dura Mater, & gives branches thro' all the Contents of the Skull.

Arteriotomy has been supposed to be of greater service than Phlebotomy, in some local Complaints, particularly in Diseases of the head. The Temporal Artery is commonly chosen for this purpose, it is difficult to open it in the same manner as we do a Vein, because it is so small, & therefore we are advised to cut it transversely: if the Artery is quite divided, it commonly bleeds impetuously, till about a Teaspoonfull is evacuated, then it shrinks, & stops suddenly, & if it is not quite divided, it is sometimes difficult to stop the Haemorrhage. It has been recommended to cut the Artery coming from the internal Carotid at the Sella Turcica, where it passes thro' the Superior Sella, at the upper part of the Orbit; but as we cannot avoid cutting some small Twigs of the Nerve, which go to the Scalp along with it, as the Bleeding will often stop before the due quantity is obtained, it will be better to omit bleeding here entirely. The Subclavian Artery comes off from the Carotid, it passes before the transverse process of the last Vertebra Colli, gets into the hole of the transverse process of the lowest neck one of the Vertebra Colli, then runs up all the holes of the Superior Vertebra Colli, when it has passed thro' the Densata it makes a Turn outwards to pass thro' the Atlas, which projects considerably from the other transverse Processes, from hence it turns backwards, & gets thro' the Foramen Magnum Occipitale into the Skull, then it pierces the Dura Mater upwards & forwards to the Pons Varolii, where it joins with its fellow, & they two become one Trunk, call'd the Basillary Artery, which again divides into two branches that anastomose with the posterior Branches of the Internal Carotid, the Anterior branches of the internal Carotid join by a Cerebral Trunk, & laterally they anastomose with the posterior branches, so that there is an Anastomosis all round the Sella Turcica. Some have said that the Arteries which go

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which go to the sides of the Skull, especially the Vertebral, take their twist so to break the force of the blood before it gets to the Brain: but these twists & turns in the Vertebral Artery seem to be no more than was necessary for their situation as the rotation of the head, & not to break the Impetus of the blood. In the internal Carotid it seems more probable that it is to break the Impetus. There is no doubt but that all Arteries carry the same Mixture of Blood from the frequent Anastomoses that we observe. The Axillary Artery runs under the Tendon of the Pectoralis & Coracobrachialis, & has the head of the Biceps on the inside of the Brachium, is then called the Brachial Artery, & gradually gets to the fore part upon the Brachialis Anterior, & commonly remains one whole Trunk till it gets below the bend of the Arm, frequently however it divides before it gets there, & sometimes it divides as high up as the axilla; but then the two branches run close together commonly, one immediately above the other, till they have passed the bend of the Arm, when they separate one running more superficial called the Radial; the other much deeper called the Ulnar Artery. The Radial Artery runs close before the Radius, & sends off a branch which runs up behind the outer Condyle of the humerus, & anastomoses with other very little branches that come down from the Trunk above the bend of the Arm. The Ulnar Artery too throws off a branch upwards, & behind the inner Condyle that anastomoses with small branches which come down from the Trunk above the bend. By means of these Anastomosing branches, the Circulation is kept up after the Trunk has been tied in the Operation of the Amputation, or fracture of the Artery in bleeding; both these branches come off nearly at the same part of the Arm, that is from the upper part of the Ulnar & Radial Artery below the bend. Even if these branches should be wanting, yet we must consider the flesh of all parts of the body, as composed of Vessels anastomosing with each other, & by this means the limb would be nourished, tho' the Vessels might be so small as not to be traced by Injection. The Ulnar Artery runs deep under the Muscles close before the Ulna, & passes close to the Piniform bone on the inside into the palm of the Hand.

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Hand, & at its upper part it gives off the interosseous Artery, which runs between the two bones, & supplies the parts thereabouts. Dr Hunter supposes that in seven Arms out of ten, the Artery does not divide into branches till after it has pass'd the bend of the Arm, & that in seven Patients, out of ten that have been injured in blood letting, the Artery will be found to have ~~been~~ divided before it has reach'd the bend. This at first View appears to be an absurdity, but the reason is this, when the Artery has divided into two branches before it has reach'd the bend, the one branch generally, lying immediately under the other raises it up, & therefore by its laying more superficial, it is more liable to be injured. In performing the Operation for the Aneurism one should be taken to observe, whether it is the principal Trunk, or not which is wounded, because if it is a branch it should be drawn a little before it is tied, by which means the other branch is left to carry on the Circulation, which otherwise in all probability would have been tied along with it. When only a branch is tied a pulse may be felt in the wrist immediately after the Operation, but when the principal Trunk is tied no pulse is felt till after four or five days, when the Anastomosing Vessels gradually distend, & bring in blood, a weak pulse becomes sensible to the finger, the numbness gradually goes off, & in a month's time a pretty good pulse may be felt; in the Anastomosing branches are dilated very much by the great quantity of blood that is oblig'd to pass thro' them, so that from very small they become very considerable Arteries, & being lengthen'd as well as dilated they become tortuous. This is a very conspicuous Anastomosis. But besides this the flesh of the Body contains most numerous Anastomoses every where.

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The Radial Artery at the Carpus divides into two branches, the largest passes ^{over} and under the two Tendons of the Flexor Pollicis, & Secundi Intermetacarpi Allicis, goes thro' the Angle between the first bone of the Thumb & Metacarpal of the first finger, in this manner it gets from behind into the palm of the hand before the ^{first} ~~flexor~~ ^{flexor} Thumb & Fingers have an Artery on each side the three Tendons, which run the whole length of the finger, they are branches of from the Ulnar, & Radial Arteries, when any of the large branches in the palm of the hand are wounded, compression alone is not sufficient to stop the haemorrhage because of the numerous anastomoses. In taking off the Arm at the Shoulder joint, cut thro' the Pectoralis, the short head of the Biceps, & Coraco Brachialis, then we find the Artery close to the inside of the Deltomus; it will often happen that the Artery will be tied just below, where it gives off a considerable branch to the neighbouring Muscles, & other parts about the joint: In dissecting out the head of the bone we shall necessarily divide the branch, which will cause a considerable gush of blood, & might make the Surgeon suspect, he had wounded the Subclavian. It must be secured with a Ligature. The Brachial Arteries arise from the fore part of the Descending Aorta, sometimes by one common Trunk, but most commonly by two. The Intercostals are generally one to each Rib: They come from the back part of the Aorta & run along the inner edge of the Ribs, sometimes one Intercoastal serves two Ribs by dividing into two branches: The first & second Ribs have generally their Intercoastals from the Subclavian. The Aorta lying on the left side the spine on either coast the left Intercoastals. The Phrenic Artery [to the Diaphragm] generally arises distinct from the Aorta, & sometimes happens along with the Vein. The Aorta in its passage downward gives off also the Intergast to the Kidneys, the periaortics to the Testes, & the Lumbal Arteries; just as it reaches the last Vertebra Lumborum it divides into two branches, the Iliac Arteries, & at the very Angle of the Bifurcation arises an Artery & Artery the Sacral Artery. The Aorta goes in the oblique foramen in the first lumbar vertebra, the periaortics

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The projecting fleshy lion of the Pelvis, & passes under Poupart's Ligament into the femoral part of the Thigh: at the upper part of the Os Sacrum, the Iliac Artery divides into two, the external & internal Iliac. The external is what passes under Poupart's Ligament, & makes the great Crural Artery. The internal Iliac passes down into the Pelvis, & is called the Hypogastric Artery: under Poupart's Ligament the external Iliac sends off two branches, the one namely, the other the Epigastric Artery, which is reflected upwards on the inside of the Rectus Venter. The Indolens is a Femoral lymphatic sometimes passes down to the forepart of the Thigh under Poupart's Ligament on the inside of the Epigastric Artery. In the Operation then if we cut upwards & inwards we shall cut the Spermatic Artery if it is a Male, if we cut upwards & outwards we shall cut the Epigastric Artery, if the Indolens should have passed down on the outside of the Epigastric Artery, if we cut upwards & outwards we shall then sever both Arteries. The Obturator Artery is a branch from the

Many large branches prove that the Situation is to the opposite parts. The external Iliac is larger than the internal in the Adult, (adult in opposition to Fetus) in the Fetus it is the very reverse. In the Fetus the internal Iliac after having given off the Hypogastric branches principally to the Uterus & Vagina in the Female, & to the bladder & Vicinities in the Male, makes a turn forwards, passes up on the side of the bladder & gets to the Navel making the Umbilical Artery one on each side. In the Adult all excepted, for as it is continued along the side of the bladder, & branches off, degenerates into a Ligament: so that what was at birth a Canal from the Pelvis to the Navel remains & is after birth no farther than the bladder, all between the bladder & Navel is then imperious.

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Underneath Poygath Ligament the Artery is on the outside of the Vein; both together lie in the middle place between the projection of the Os Pubis & the projection of the anterior part of the Spine of the Os Ilium: from Poygath Ligament the Artery runs down in the straightest possible course, & get between the two Condyles behind, & in its way it passes thro' the Tendon of the Triceps Musc. a little below the middle of the Thigh; where it lies is the Place it is called the Popliteal Artery; just as it passes out of the Ham between the two Attachments of the Solas it sends off the Anterior Tibial Artery, which passes immediately thro' between the two bones to the fore part of the Leg; soon after it has sent off this branch it divides into the posterior Tibial & the Fibular or Peroneal Artery: the Anterior Tibial runs down the fore part of the Leg depressed between the bones, & close to the Tibia, gets to the back of the foot, & then plunges in between the Metatarsal bones of the foot, & second toe. The posterior Tibial runs down behind the Tibia deeply seated between the muscles that make the Tendo Achillis & those that lie immediately close to the bones; it runs behind the inner Ankle & on the inside of the Os Calcis when it divides into the Plantar Arteries as before, the one to the inner, the other to the outer side of the Sole of the foot: just above the Ankle it sends off a branch which gets from behind to the fore part of the foot by passing between the Tibial, Fibular and anastomosis with the Anterior Tibial, & the Fibular Artery runs deeply seated close down behind the Fibula & passes behind the outer Ankle to the out side of the foot, above the Ankle it sends off a branch forward round the Fibula, which anastomoses with the Anterior Tibial. The Anterior & posterior Tibial anastomoses together & send branches along the sides of each toe to the very end, as the Radial & Ulnar Arteries do in the Hand

By knowing

The Veins

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By knowing the Course of the Arteries we pretty well know the Course of the Veins, but there may be said to be two sets of Veins, the one taking the Course of the Arteries, the other laying quite superficial without any large Arteries near them. From considering the Veins Physiologically we only learn that they return the blood to the Heart & wounds of the Veins are not nearly so dangerous as those of the Arteries. When a large Vein is tied the Circulation is continued by means of the communicating branches. The Venous Ramoses of the Venal System is vastly more numerous & considerable than of the Arterial System. A Surgeon at Manchester cut his large Cerebral Artery about the middle, on account of the bleeding from the anastomosing branches it was necessary to tie it immediately without endeavouring to separate it from the Vein, so that this Artery & the great Vein were tied together. The Surgeon did well, the blood was carried thro' the Vein by the anastomosing Arteries, and was returned by the anastomosing Superficial Veins, which became exceedingly turgid & tortuous, and made the Appearance of the Limb very different from the other: the Vena Saphena quite from the Foot to the upper part of the Thigh was very prominent & winding. The Veins (except those of the Liver) have Valves, in which they differ from Arteries. The Phloes of Veins in different parts of the body are in no two persons alike. The Vena Cava arises from the Vena Cava Superior, & may be said to be the Drain of Blood from all the containing parts of the Chest: it gives off lateral branches answering to the Intercostal Arteries, soon after the Vena Cava Superior divides into the two Subclavians, and as it lies on the right side of the Spine the left Subclavian is longest. The great Vein from the Thyroid Gland enters the left Subclavian immediately in the middle of the body. Each Subclavian before it passes over the first Rib gives off the Trunk of the External and Internal Jugular Veins. The external branches commonly attend the external branches of the

Corded

The Veins

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Carotid Artery, and the internal Jugular passes into the Skull with the internal Vein, & forms the Sinuses of the Dura Mater: at the Shoulder the Subclavian sends off the Cephalic Vein, which comes out between the Deltoid & Pectoral Muscles, and runs down the Arm immediately under the Skin; the continuation of the Subclavian goes down the Arm along with the Artery, & is called the Basilic; at the bend of the Arm the Veins divide & anastomose making four principal ones, the Cephalic, the Cephalic Median, the Basilic Median, & the continuation of the Basilic. The Ulnar Vein, the Cephalic, Basilic Median come a little below the bend. The Basilic Median is commonly the most tinged, & superficial for bleeding, yet as it lies immediately on the Artery, and Artery, the Surgeon commonly chooses to take the most superficial one, the Cephalic Median, if this cannot be got, then is the Cephalic which fills very well, & gives superficially, but its Situation is awkward, and being a small rolling Vein, it easily eludes the Lancet. There is no Objection to opening the Ulnar Vein, but the awkwardness of its Situation, it laying too much underneath the Arm to be conveniently come at - (When a Vein is opened with a blunt Lancet, the Lancet first presses all the parts together, and then the Plunge makes the Lancet go deeper than was intended.) - The Veins of the Arm divide & subdivide down the fore Arm, and hand, passing from before round the outside of the Ulna, and Radius to the back part of the Arm and Hand. Every Artery is commonly attended by two Veins.

The Vena Cava Inferior gives off no branches similar to the Celiac, and two Mesenteric Arteries: but the blood returning from the stomach, Spl. Liver, Pancreas and Intestines is carried by the Vena Portarum into the Liver: the Blood is carried from the Liver into the Vena Cava Inferior, by the Vena Cava Hepatica, which enters it just under the Diaphragm.

Each

The Veins

Each of the three Veins divide into an External, which passes under Poyperts Ligament, and an Internal one, going down into the Pelvis, called the Hypogastric Vein, which is distributed to the internal parts of Generation. Just under Poyperts Ligament the Vein sends off the Vena Saphena, which runs along the inside of the Thigh and Leg from the Groin to The Foot, all the way immediately under the Skin: it divides, and anastomoses on the upper part of the Foot, as the Veins do on the back of the hand. Opening any of these Veins in the Foot is called *Bleeding in the Vena Saphena*. — The Continuation of the three Veins the Cusals takes the course of the Cuscal Artery —

The Brain

Lecture 65th

The whole brain may be said to be that substance from which the Nerves are produced, it naturally divides itself into two parts, that within the Skull called Encephalon is superior, & the base part is situated much lower than the fore part, it is divided into three principal parts, the Cerebrum, Cerebellum, & Medulla oblongata from whence the Medulla spinalis originates. The Falxiform process of the Dura Mater above divides the Cerebrum into two equal Hemispheres. The Cerebrum projects before at the forehead, & makes the Anterior Lobes Cerebri; it projects behind, & makes the Posterior Lobes, & it projects laterally on the Temporal bones towards the Basis of the Skull, & makes the Middle Lobes Cerebri. The Cerebrum reaches from the forehead to the most projecting part of the hind head above; below it reaches no farther than the transverse ridge by the Pore Petrosa of the Temporal Bone at the Basis of the Skull; at the Pore Petrosa the Cerebellum begins, and lies under, behind the Cerebrum. The Vertical line, opposite to the division between the Cerebrum & Cerebellum is a very little lower than the transverse ridge on the Occiput at bone; the Posterior part of the Falxiform process splits into two arms transversely, but between the posterior Lobes Cerebri, the Cerebellum. These are called the Great Transverses, they do not meet at their inner edges so as to divide the Cerebrum & Cerebellum as under from one another, but they are continued only to a certain depth, & leave a middle common part between them called the 3rd Transverse.

The Dura Mater is a tendinous Membrane made of two Laminae, not to be separated however except just at the Sinuses, it is chiefly connected to all the internal Surface of the Cranium by very minute blood Vessels, which pass from one to the other, its inner Surface is smooth & polished, & its blood projects on the external Surface, and so necessarily lay in Cavities in the
bone

The Brain

Bones except at the Sutures it has no connection with the Pia Mater, very remarkable. The space between them may be considered as a cavity, as a tea spoon full of fluid between the two will spread itself half over the Brain, because they flee naturally, in close contact, its principal Artery is a branch from the Cerebral Carotid that enters the Skull just before the Temporal Bone at the lower Anterior angle of the Parietal Bone. This branches every where thro' it, as upon every Branch of an Artery attend two branches of Veins, one on each side of the Artery, all along the upper edge, of the Falxiform Process the superior longitudinal Sinus runs, it is made by the splitting of the inner Lamella of the Dura Mater, which runs down between the Hemispheres, while the external Lamella going straight leaves a triangular space, between which is the superior longitudinal sinus. The Dura of Pia Mater adhaes at the Sutures because the Veins of both enter into them. This adhesion prevents any fluid from getting across the sinus from one side to the other. The Sinuses may be considered as vacant spaces between the two Lamella of the Dura Mater, as are Veins ex officio. These spaces are triangular, full of branches of Veins, that open into them. The superior longitudinal sinus is broadest behind, the stream of blood thro' it runs backwards, the Veins open into it forward so that the two streams meet, yet, tho' there is no wound known, it has bridges going across it made by small processes of the inner part of the Dura Mater (which are washed over both sides by the Blood in the sinus) as if there was danger of its being too much distended. It begins forwards at the Jugular Gallie, it runs backwards under the Superior middle part of the Arch of the Cranium till it gets to the Cerebellum, here it divides into the two lateral Sinuses, which run as far as the Temporal Bone between the Cerebrum and Cerebellum, and thence from the Jugular Vein on each side. These three Sinuses drain the two Membranes, and the

Endocranion

Exterior part of the Brain of their Venal Blood: the Middle Mass of Brain is drained by a fourth Sinus, the Tenuar Pharyngalis, or pupa of Pharyngalis, it opens into the cross way between the longitudinal and Lateral Sinuses, sometimes to the right, or sometimes to the left lateral. Modern Anatomists describe many more Sinuses, at least eight or ten, as their first longitudinal that runs along the inferior edge of the Dura, the Frontal, the Sphenoidal &c. There are only 4 Sinus in the Dura Mater, that open into the four Sigmoidal Sinus, was already described, and we may trace at least an hundred of the same kind.

The Pia Mater gives to the Brain a smooth outward Covering, it may be considered as made of two Lamellæ, and the inner one passing down between all the convolutions, so that its internal surface is exceedingly distended. When the Pia Mater is on the Brain, the Convolutions are all fixed even to one another, but when that is stripped off, the Convolutions are loose, & disunited for some way down, so that the finger may be passed between them for some little depth for a Ridge of the Pia Mater ends down between, & is fixed to the Convolution of the Brain. The Vessels of the Brain are continued on to the Dura Mater & Pia Mater, and the Vessels that connect the Pia Mater to the Convolution of the Brain are called by Mayock, *Tomentum Cerebri*; and indeed when the Membrane is stripped off, they have that downy Appearance. Anatomists have described a third Membrane situated between the Dura & Pia Mater, the *Lamina Arachnoidea*; the appearance of this however is no where to be seen, but down by the *Medulla Oblongata*. The Names which have been given to different parts of the Brain, are ridiculous enough without any regard to their Uses, neither indeed are the Uses of particular parts known, yet it was necessary they should have Names, else when we describe particular Cases &c we should not be

considered too

The Brain

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understood. To examine the Contents of the Cranium we saw the Skull this circularly, when the upper piece is removed the Dura Mater is very immediately under this the Pia Mater. The Vessels at the Falx must be broken thro' with the Finger, and the Falx drawn out & cut off at the Crus & Gallia. The two Hemispheres being drawn gently, as under at a certain depth the Corpus Callosum is seen, which is a white Substance of a pretty firm Texture; all above it is called the Convolution of the Brain; these Convolution are to be cut off down to the Corpus Callosum, they are composed of an outer Cortical part of a white colour, & an inner Medullary part of a white colour. The inner Medullary is greater than the Cortical, it shoots off from the Corpus Callosum as from a Centre into the middle of each Convolution, where it is covered all round by the external Cortical part, which follows in & out the disposition of the Convolution, so that the Pia Mater touches only the Cortical Substance. Both the Cortical & Medullary Substances are very tender, the Cortical most so, and they are exceedingly vascular, indeed they appear to be a composition of Vessels. The Functions of the Brain the best Physiologists are agreed around at all understood from any thing we see of its structure. Some French Physiologists have lately thought the Corpus Callosum to be the immediate seat of the mind or Soul, from observing that injuries inflicted here are particularly & suddenly fatal in their Effects. The next parts to be examined are the Ventricles of the Brain, which are two Oblong Cavities, one in each Hemisphere lying contiguous & only separated by an exceedingly fine Membrane call'd the Septum Lucidum. They are situated immediately under the Corpus Callosum, & their general direction is forwards & backwards. Each Ventricle adapts itself to the Medullary Substance of the Cerebrum, so it is best to consider each as a cavity sending out three Processes; first the Anterior Process which makes a Cavity in the middle of the Anterior

The Brain

The Anterior Lobe Cerebri, a second into the posterior Lobe Cerebri, & a third winding round into the Middle Lobe Cerebri. Anatomists mention an Anterior, & posterior Ventricle; by the posterior they mean the Middle process, & what Dr Hunter calls the posterior process, they call the Aditamentum. Near the outer side of each Ventricle appears an ash-coloured long body, narrow forward, & growing broader as it goes backwards, called the Corona Striata. Between these, & rather behind are situated the Thalami Nervorum Opticorum, white bodies one on each Ventricle; & between these appear the Plexus Choroidei at entrance of Vessels. These three, the Corona Striata, the Thalami Nervorum Opticorum, & the Plexus Choroidei lie in each Ventricle; at the bottom of the Ventricle, & under the Septum Nervorum lies the Fornix, a white substance; its Root lies forward, & its two Cornua run backward, & outward with the Plexus Choroidei, into the Middle process of the Ventricle.

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The Brain

Lecture 66th

So go on with the Dissection of the Brain. The Two posterior Lobes Cerebri being cut out we see the lateral Processes of the Dura Mater covering the Cerebellum. The middle anterior part of the Cerebellum is highest, & runs up to a point where it joins the Cerebrum, this part is called the Sulcillus of the Brain: upon this I shew immediately in the Center of the Brain is placed the Pineal Gland; from it being exposed & situated so centrally, Des Cartes concluded that it was the immediate residence of the Soul. The old Anatomists thought that the Fornix made a Passage into the third Ventricle, but it only lies over, for if we remove the Fornix, we do not thereby expose the Ventricle; under the Root of the Fornix, & Thalami Nervorum Opticorum, the two lateral processes of the Ventricle communicate with one another, so that we must find one Ventricle twined with a blood, & the other not. The Third Infundibulum is at the anterior extremity of the Thalami Nervorum Opticorum just under the Root of the Fornix, & is called the Anterior hole. The Posterior hole is between the posterior extremities of the Thalami, the Anterior is called Arua, the posterior Velum. The Thalami Nervorum Opticorum where they lie need not make longitudinal fissures, but a little way down they are closely united: by tearing this thin small Union, we expose a little longitudinal Pyramidal Cavity, called the third Ventricle lying backwards, & forwards; into its anterior end. The Anterior hole leads from above; the posterior hole leads into its posterior end; when the Anterior hole is there is a communication between the two lateral Ventricle, and these two with the third, so that all three communicate with the Infundibulum by means of the Arua. The fourth Ventricle lies under, & a little more backward than the Pineal Gland between the Cerebellum, & Medulla Oblongata; it communicates with the third Ventricle by the Aqueduct that runs from the posterior end of the third Ventricle into the anterior end of the fourth; under the Pineal Gland its posterior end is called Calamus Scriptorius. The Irregularities on the surface of the Cerebellum are called the Lamella, as those on the Cerebrum are called Convolutiones. The Cerebellum

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The Cerebellum is cover'd by the Dura & Pia Mater, & these two Membranes are united together only at the sinus, as on the Cerebrum at the lower part of the Medulla Oblongata; The Pia Mater splits into two Lamellae, the inner one contains the Vessels, & remains united to the adjacent surface of these parts; the outer Lamella lies loosely on the inner between it & the Dura Mater, and makes the Tunica Arachnoidea as it is call'd without a Vessel to be seen in it; The Dura Mater is continued from the Medulla Oblongata to the spinal marrow, & makes a kind of Sheath for it; Between the two Carotid Arteries lies the Infundibulum. The upper part of the Medulla Oblongata is thick & call'd the Pons Varolii; All the Medulla Oblongata is white, & consist of Medullary Substance except a little ash-colour this is the middle. By making a Vertical Incision thro' the Cerebellum from the middle of the Medulla Oblongata, we bring out the Arterial Vessels, which is the effect of this particular Incision. It shows the disposition of the Medullary Substance within, & the Cortical without, the Medullary sheath coming from the Medulla Oblongata as its Center, where the Medulla Oblongata sends off the Medullary Substance of the Cerebellum, it is call'd Pedunculus; where it sends off the Medullary Substance of the Cerebrum, it is call'd Crus. The Ventricles are two pair of little Emuneries on the Medulla Oblongata; below these are the Corpora Pyramidalia, & Corpora Oblivaria. The Infundibulum was supposed to carry down the water of the Brain into the Glandula Pituitaria; which from thence by some means or other get into the Nose, but tho' the Infundibulum depends immediately over the Glandula Pituitaria, yet it does not go into it. The Glandula Pituitaria is a firm small body,

L. 1. 1. 1.

The Eye

Lecture 6th

The eye brows serve principally to defend the eyes from too much light; thence we see that People, who have weak eyes when they walk out in a clear light, commonly contract their eye brows. The eyelids serve as moveable Curtains to veil the Eyes occasionally; (the other Senses have no Apparatus to prevent their being affected at all Times.) In cavity opening, shutting the eye, the upper lid only seems to move; the under lid moves along with it when we shut the eye forcibly. The Elevation of the upper Lid is performed by the Levator Palpebrae Superioris, which arises from the upper side of the Optic Nerve at the bottom of the Orbit, as is spent in the Lid. The eye lids are strengthened in the middle by a Cartilage or Quill called the Tarsus, or Ciliary Cartilage. M^r John Hunter is of Opinion that it is entirely Glandular. It is true it is not much harder than the Glandular substance of the Female Breast. The Ducts or Ducts of these Glands may be seen with a glass standing in a Row just under the edge of the eye lids. The Muscles these Glands secrete is a defence to the Tarsus inner edge of the eye lids against their being hurt by friction from their frequent closing upon each other. The use of the eye lashes is to defend the eyes from any thing that might otherwise get into them; therefore when Sand is blown up, by the wind, we almost shut our eyes, & leave them open only just sufficiently to see our way. Eyes that have lost their lashes become weak from the frequency of having hard bodies thrown into them. The inner Membrane of the upper lid is called the Tunica Conjunctiva, which is reflected over the Tunica Albuginea, & is very thin, so that the Whiteness of that Coat is even this. The Angle of Reflexion between the two is perpetually changing, as the Eye, or eye Lid move; when it covers the Ball it is smooth, & without Closely when it

The Eye.

when it covers the inside of the eye lid it is very Saccular & Villous
At most, that is, any thing getting into the eye as a bit of Dust, will stick
generally on the inside of the Upper eye lid, for if it lodges upon the Ball, that
eye lid immediately comes down, & being rougher than the Ball it carries the
irritating body along with it. It appears to be the inside of the eye lid that is
pained more than the Ball, a small bit of a Lent on the end of a Probe will commonly
take it out; when the Sarcous is thickened, it is pushed outwards, & by that means
inverts the eye lids. The Tendon of the Orbicularis Internus, that runs from
the inner Canthus to the bone of the nose is called the internal Ligament of
the eye lids from the outer angle there is a band of firm Cellular Membrane
which fixes it to the horn of the Orbit, this is called the external Ligament. The
Glandula Lacrymalis has only of late been known to be the source of the Tears,
The old Anatomists call'd it the Glandula Innominata the unknown Gland;
it lies in a cavity within the horn of the Orbit just over the outer Canthus, &
has a Concave Surface adapted to the Concavity of the eye Ball; its ducts are
running Obliquely down, & open thro' the inner Membrane of the upper eye lid;
near to the outer Canthus: there are commonly two or three large enough to admit
the end of a small bristle, the Tears then are thrown in between the eye & the
lids at the outer Canthus, they are carried out from between them at the inner
Canthus, so that they wash the Ball all over. Tho' the Lacrymal Gland is
but small, yet it occasionally secretes a great quantity of Tears equally from
Affection of the mind, or irritation of the Organ. The Lacrymal Gland
fills up the inner angle, & a little way from it on the edge of the eye lids are
two little projecting parts, one on each lid; upon these is seen the small Orifice of
the Ductus Lacrymalis. When the eye lids are closed the Orifices lie together, & the
Ductus run parallel. They terminate in the Saccus Lacrymalis in such a
manner that it is difficult to say whether by one or by two Orifices, they open
just as

The eye

just as they are uniting, & make the figure of the letter V without the stem: the upper end of the Sacle lies under the Tendon of the Orbicularis Musclev just without a ridge of the bone, and lodged in a small Cavity of the bone. In the Operation of opening the Eye, this ridge should be left for, and the point of the knife carried down to the bone within the ridge: in doing this, there is no Occasion for cutting the Tendon of the Orbicularis, and if we cut thro' this Tendon, we shall cut thro' both Tendons, which will occasion a perpendicular Foramen lacrymalis by Obliterating the passage for the Tears into the Nose. The Eye Ball is moved upward, downward, inward & outward by the four Recti Muscles, which are fixed at the Edge of the Hole at the bottom of the Orbit around the Optic Nerve. Their other Endemities are fixed by Tendons to the Ball, that are lost in the white Coat of the Eye. It is supposed that all these Muscles acting together will press the Ball back against the Sclerotic part behind, and perhaps also alter the figure of the Eye a little to answer some particular purpose in Vision. The Obliquus Inferior is fixed to the Rim of the Orbit a little distance from the Sacus lacrymalis, & is fixed to the Ball a little from & without the Optic Nerve. This is antagonized by the Obliquus Superior called Trochlearis from its Tendon passing thro' the Trochlea at the inner or superior part of the Orbit just with the Radix. It is fixed to the side of the Hole at the bottom of the Orbit, goes thro' the Pulley, then turns back again, & is fixed to the Superior & outer part of the Ball.

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The Eye
Lecture 68

The Eye is as well understood as any part of the body: the figure of the Ball is a spheroid, but at the Cornea it projects more than the rest, and on the sides where the four Recti Muscles are fixed, it is a little flattened. The Optic Nerve is inserted into its posterior part, not exactly in the middle Anterior part or Axis, but the least in the World to the inside. The Oblique insertion is very great in some I read Auger. The Tunicæ Conjunctivæ does not appear to be continued across the Cornea, at least it does not lay loose there, as on the other part of the Eye, but D. Hunter thinks it is, says it is plainly to be seen in the Tunicæ; Ophthalmicus seem to prove this to be the case. Among the Coats of the Eye, Andromista have described the Tunicæ Adnatæ, but these don't appear to be any such Coat. The first proper Coat of the Eye is thick, & contains the other parts, as in a Case, its posterior part, and sides are white and Tendonous, its fore part is bright as glass. The bright part is called the Cornea. Transparency, the white Tendonous part, the Cornea Opacæ as by others the opaque part is call'd the Sclerotica, and the bright part the Cornea, when the Cornea is soaked in Water, it becomes thick and opaque. The part where the Sclerotica & Cornea meet, we will for the present call the Boundary. Immediately within the Sclerotica is a thin vascular Membrane the Choroides. This goes all round, except that at its Anterior part it has a hole call'd the Pupil, from the Boundary to where it forms the Pupil it is call'd the Iris. The Iris is perfectly loose, but the Choroides is connected to the Sclerotica by very fine Vessels, passing from one into the other: It is of a darker colour behind than when it approaches towards the Boundary, for here it becomes almost white, it has two curling Outries on it, they branch in a Vortical manner, & therefore call'd by Leno, Vasa Vorticosa: It may be separated into two Lamellæ, the inner of

The Eye

The inner of which was improperly call'd by Ruysch Membrana, or Tunica Ruyschiana. The Iris differs in colour in different bodies; it has two circles on it call'd the Zones, one near the Boundary, the other at its inner edge, it is very thin, but by injections appears to be vascular. The Pigeon's Iris is a circle of little Pigeons at the Boundary, which make a ring all round the crystalline humour. They are particularly large in an Ox's Eye: in the human Eye they are but small. When the Eye is minutely injected, the Choroid Coat seems to be nothing but a Plexus of vessels: This Coat is discontinued opposite to the insertion of the Optic nerve, or rather it makes a hole for the Admission of the Nerve. This Spot at the bottom of the Eye is blind, and Rays coming from any Object, and falling here, will produce no image: For if three Cards are stuck upon a Wall, the Eye being placed so that the Rays coming from the middle one shall fall on this Spot, the outside ones will be seen, and the middle one not, the other Eye remains: being shut; The head Coat of the Eye is the Membrana Nigra, or Nigra Pigeon's Eye: it is an exceeding tender Membrane, is adorned with the Choroides of the Iris: it is thickest, darkest, and strongest just under the Iris; its Use is evidently to prevent any Light passing thro' the Iris into the Eye: it is supposed to be of a darker colour, in proportion as the hair of the Animal is darker. Within side of all is the Retina Tunica, which is an expansion of the Optic nerve. Thro' the Center of the Optic nerve passes an Artery which is expanded on the Retina, and in the Sclero Tunic may be traced going thro' the Vitreous Humour. We cannot trace the Retina farther than near the Boundary, it always is lost before it quite reaches the crystalline Humour, if it is continued before the crystalline Humour, it becomes transparent. I have inject the Eye of a Fetus not more than five or six Months old, we find

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We find there is no Pupil to be seen, but a Membrane going quite across, called the *Membrana Pupillaris* very vascular. *D^r Sands* was the first Discoverer of it. In a Child born at the full time, we never see any appearance of this Membrane, what becomes of it we don't know. I thought I have an Idea, that it afterwards forms the Capula of the *CrySTALLINE Humour*. The names *Uvea*, *Uvea*, & *Choroides* have been much confounded by different Authors; it is plain that the Greeks understood by *Uvea* what we call the Iris, & by *Choroides* the part we have called the Boundary. The Humours of the Eye are three, the *CrySTALLINE* in the middle, the *Aqueous* before it, & the *Vitreous* behind it. If by Humours is meant a fluid, then there is but one Humour, the *Aqueous*; the other two are of a gelatinous consistence, of which the *CrySTALLINE* is by much the firmest. The *CrySTALLINE* is placed just behind the Iris, but no way connected with it: it is convex before & behind, but it is more so behind (when put into Spirit of Wine it becomes firm & opaque, of a white colour, like the white of an Egg hardened by boiling.) This with the *Ciliary Processes* makes a complete partition between the *Aqueous* and *Vitreous* Humours. The *Aqueous Humour* possesses the two Chambers of the Eye, By the anterior Chamber is meant the space between the *Cornea* & Iris, & by the posterior Chamber the space between the Iris & the partition made by the *CrySTALLINE Humour* & the *Ciliary Processes*. All the space behind the Partition is filled up by the *Vitreous Humour*. The middle anterior part of it receives the posterior convex part of the *CrySTALLINE Humour*; around the edge of the *CrySTALLINE*, the *Membrana Iris* is laid, which has furrows indented thereon by the *Ciliary Processes*. All the Humours in a sound Eye, & in a young one especially, are perfectly transparent, it is very plain that the

CrySTALLINE

The Eye

Crystalline Humour adheres firmly to the contiguous Surface of the Vitreous, and that too by means of its Capsula; for if the Capsula be punctured it will readily separate, & leave its Capsula upon the Vitreous. The Capsula is vascular, & may be injected. The Crystalline Humour has different degrees of firmness in different parts, it is pretty hard towards its outside, but the middle or nucleus is very hard & waxy. No one has yet injected the substance of the Crystalline Humour, many have talked of it, but they seem to have mistaken & called the injected Capsula, the injected Crystalline. It has been said that Albinus injected it, but he himself told D. Hunter, he never had done it, tho' so early as the year 1734, he had injected the Membrana Pupillaris, and showed a Preparation, & Drawing of it to D. Hunter. The Vitreous Humour is a very tender Jelly, in appearance, the greatest part of it is certainly water involved in a fine spongy Membrane of a very delicate structure.

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The Eye &c.

Lecture 69th

The Knowledge of Light is a necessary Introduction to the Physiology of the Eye. Luminous bodies are of two kinds, one that emits from itself as the Sun, a candle &c.; another that emits Light only by reflecting that which falls on it from some other body; thus the Moon emits not its own, but Light borrowed from the Sun, and a piece of white paper emits Light reflected which fell on it from a Candle. Every part of a Luminous body, has rays passing from it in all possible parallel directions. Any Ray passing from the Sun falling obliquely on a denser Medium as Water will be refracted, & bent more to the perpendicular direction, by passing thro' one that is rarer will be refracted, & bent more from the perpendicular direction if it passed obliquely. The Rays are supposed to be refracted by the Attraction of Matter; hence the denser the Medium the stronger the Attraction; Any Ray falling perpendicularly on the surface of many Media tho' ever so different in Density, will not have its direction altered, it will not be refracted in the least. Rays falling on any surface of a Body that is smooth will be thrown off again or reflected unless that body be a black one: and the angle of incidence will always have the same angle of Reflection, that itself has with a Line perpendicular to the Plane of the Reflector; Vice Versa. The Eye is in fact a Camera Obscura, and the Focus is at its bottom, for if we carefully dissect off the Coat at the bottom of an Eye so as not to disturb the Humours, & then lay a piece of transparent bladder in their place, we shall see distinctly the picture of the opposite Objects shining thro' the bladder. The Crystalline Humour is the principal Refractor that makes the picture at the bottom of the Eye, that is the point to which it refracts, and converges them. All parts of the Crystalline Humour dont seem to refract equally, but more those Rays that pass thro'

The Eye

pass & through its Center, than those thro' its Circumference. The Retina, appears plainly to be a continuation of the Optic Nerve, and that is the Organ of Vision, and not the Choroides, which is unfit for this purpose here; and it is covered within by the Black Membrane. Between the Sclerotic & Crystalline Humours there is a space then to be filled up, & this is done by the Vitreous Humour, which spreading a little there is a double refraction. The Pupil moderates the quantity of Light by its contraction, and dilates that a greater quantity may be admitted into the eye, when we look at very distant ~~distinct~~ Objects. This seems to be at least one use of the Iris, and that it might perform its motion properly it plays in an open space, which is filled up by a transparent Water. The use of the Nigrum Pigmentum is to absorb & prevent any rays passing into the eye, but such as pass thro' the Crystalline. This black Membrane is laid all round within the Sclerotic of the eye for the same reason that a Camera Obscura is painted black within. The use of the Tunica Choroides is certainly to nourish the eye, & the external Coat the Sclerotica forms the Box or Walls of this tender Organisation; its being transparent on the forepart is undoubtedly to admit the light to the bottom of the eye, & the transparent part being continued over the Iris allows those very Oblique rays that fall thereon to be reflected, & by that means Objects on each side are seen, but not so distinctly as those directly opposite. The Sclerotica is Tendonous, because nature could not have given a stronger Coat than a Tendon, & Tendon being inelastic, & the Humours incompressible; pressure on the eye will not make it deviate from its Spherical figure. The great use of having two eyes is, that we may judge of distances. We judge of distances by the angle made by the axes of our two eyes inclining towards one another; When the eyes are directed

The eye

directed to a near Object, the Angle is greater, when to a distant Object the Angle is less; when we look at very distant Objects, the Rays are nearly parallel. If we shut one Eye we cannot see so as to judge of distance by the other, because a single Axis can make no Angle of itself. The Refracting Power of an old Eye is weak, and therefore an old Man holds the Object at a distance, & in a great Sight to make the Rays come to the Eye as parallel as possible, that they may not diverge too much before they get to the Retina, so that he wears Convex Spectacles to make the Rays converge. People in this state are long-sighted, and cannot see an Object near them. A Rabbid or short-sighted man sees the Rays too much refracted, or converging, and therefore he wears concave Spectacles to diverge the Rays, or if he looks at a distant Object the Rays coming nearly parallel are converged too soon, so that the picture is indistinctly marked on the Retina, and therefore he places the Object near him to adapt the Rays to the great Refraction.

It is well known that the Pupil dilates or contracts, as we look at distant or near Objects, but D'Honten believes also that the figure of the Ball is altered, and adapted by its Muscles, to different Objects. A Person, who squints habitually, sees single Objects that present themselves; one, who squints on purpose, and not from Habit sees double; and an habitual squinting Person's Eyes when brought right see double. A Child newly born often squints, and feeling gradually that it is an inconvenience learns to direct both Eyes to the same Object; if it is observed that he always employs one particular Eye to look at Objects, while the other is going about for want of direction, the Squinting may be cured by tying up the good Eye till he has got a habit of directing the other properly. Blindness must arise from one of these Causes, first, that which prevents the passage of light to the Retina.

The Eye

the Retina; or that which prevents the Perception of it; this last Cause is called the *Opacitas*. In this Case the Humours and Cornea continue as transparent as ever, but the Iris having no sensible Motion, the Pupil always appears equally large in a strong or weak Light.

The Opacity which excludes light may be in the Coat or Humours; if it is in the Cornea, we can readily discern it by its white and muddy appearance; when only that part of the Cornea is Opaque, which is exactly opposite to the Pupil, we cannot so readily distinguish it by looking directly forward, as sideways. Ninety times in an hundred the Opacity is in the *Crystalline Humour*, being white it makes all the Pupil seem white.

The Mouth & Nose

Lecture 70th

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We shall examine the Mouth & Nose together. We already know the Cavities of the Nose, & their communications, and we also know a great deal of the Mouth. As appendages to the Mouth are the Salivary Glands, these are commonly reckoned three parts, the principal of which is the Parotid. The Parotid Gland is situated immediately before & below the Meatus Auditorius, it goes as low down as the Basis of the lower jaw, & a good way inwards, behind the lower jaw; it is a conglomerated Gland. It has no one great Ductus, & Vein, but receives many little branches from the neighbouring parts, particularly from the Temporal Artery, which runs behind, & partly thro' it. The Portio Dura of the seventh pair of Nerves pass thro' the body of this Gland in its way to be distributed to the face; the Branches of the Secretory Duct ramify in the Substance of the Gland like the branches of an Artery, they unite into one common Duct, just within the Substance of the Gland, which comes out at its Anterior part, it first runs a little upwards, then a little downwards, & crosses over the Bulb of the Buccinator Muscle just under the Projections of the Cheek bone, then plunging inwards opens into the Mouth nearly opposite to the third Middle grinding Tooth in the Upper jaw. Sometimes there is a little Abscess of this Gland that comes more forward on the jaw, which sends branches into the Skin Duct; from its Situation the Gland must be moved only the Motion of the lower jaw, & as it is observed, that increased Motion on any Gland increases its secretion, we conclude that there is a larger quantity of Saliva poured into the Mouth from this Gland in Mastication, or Chewing. Sometimes it happens, that in a Wound of the Cheek, the Duct is cut thro', the Saliva is discharged thro' the Wound, sometimes the Saliva finds its proper Channel, as the external Wound heals up, but it happens likewise, that from the Duct being fairly divided, the two Ends shrink, & do not reunite. That part of it which goes to the Mouth closes up, the Saliva runs constantly thro'

the external

The Mouth & Nose.

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The external Wound, & a Salivary Fistula remains. When the Case is second, we should by applying whitening plaister &c on the external Wound endeavour to make the Saliva flow in its proper Channel, & order the Patient when he speaks or eats, to put his finger on the external Orifice: if this should not succeed, we should make a new passage into the Mouth, & the best way to do this is to use a Strain of Silk by means of an Eyed Probe sharp at the other End, from the Wound thro' the Muscles immediately underneath as near as possible to the old Channel into the Mouth, leave it in for some time till it is judged that there is a pretty clear passage made by its becoming callous, then withdraw the Silk, & heal up the external Wound. We have been advised in this Case to destroy the Parotid Gland, but this is impossible, for to extirpate it entirely we must cut very deep down & in so doing we shall cut thro' the Vessels of the Temporal, & internal Maxillary Arteries, which would occasion a very dangerous haemorrhage.

There is hardly a possible chance of our destroying every the least bit of the Gland, and so long as any remains there will be a Secretion of Saliva, the Fistula will in spite of all our Endeavours continue. Stone discovered the Duct is 1660, & published the Discovery the next Year, therefore it is called Ductus Stenosis. In the Cavity between the Os Hyoides & the Angle of the lower Jaw lies the Maxillary Gland, of the figure of the Cavity it is contained in, it is sometimes called the Submaxillary. The Duct comes off above the middle anterior part, passes along the inside of the Sublingual Gland, & opens into the Mouth just by the Os Hyoides near the two middle Incisor Teeth, in the lower Jaw, all the viscous juices of the body in some constitutions will form Calculous Concretions, and it is not uncommon for a Stone to be lodged in this Duct, & may be plainly felt & cut out. The Duct is liable to be stopped by Stricture too; from these Causes the Saliva may be accumulated & produce a Tumor

The Mouth & Nose

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a Tumor, which should be discharged by Sindure with a Spoon, after a few
wards the saliva will continue to flow thro' the new Orifice. The
Sublingual Gland is a long thin Gland lying immediately under the
Buccopharynx of the Mouth, one lobe towards the jaw, the other towards the Tongue;
It arises from the Symphysis of the lower Jaw, where it nearly touches it
yellow, so far back as the Maxillary Gland: it has ^{no} common secretory Duct,
but a number of small Ducts which open on the Membrane of the Mouth by
many Orifices placed in a Row. The Maxillary Duct has been known to fall
ages. In all Writers down to Haller mention is made of the Maxillary &
Sublingual Ducts. Haller thought that the Maxillary threw its Ducts into
the Sublingual. A Mass of the Sublingual Gland sometimes runs into the
Maxillary, but they always remain distinct. There seems to be a difference
between the Maxillary & Sublingual Glands. The Substance of the Maxillary
is harder, & its Juice is not soapy as the Sublingual, so that the Sublingual seems
to be a true Salivary Gland. The Maxillary of Rats Glands
appear to be the real Salivary Glands. Heister describes a soft white Gland
near the Malar, & calls it the Malar Gland, he says it may easily be mistaken for
a piece of Fat; now there is a piece of Fat there remarkably tender, but no
glandular appearance. The Parotid & Maxillary Glands do without doubt
sometimes inflame & suppurate. But in Crophulaceous Habit it often
happens that there are Swellings in the place of these Glands, or called Parotid
& Maxillary Swellings, being supposed to be Swellings of these Glands.
In these Cases it is generally found, that it is not an Affection of these Glands,
but of the neighbouring Lymphatic Glands, as appears from dissections.
The Labiales are small Glands situated on the inside of the lower Lip, they on the
the inside are equal, & may be always distinctly felt in the living body, they are
similar to

The Mouth & Nose

similar to the Sublingual; & secrete a Mucus. Besides the Nasal, Maxillary & Sublingual there does not appear to be any considerable gland about the Face. The small Glands on the inside of the Cheeks are called Buccalae. The Oesophagus is fixed to the Basis of the Skull by a large Muscular Bag the Pharynx at its posterior part immediately before the Esophagus, and visible, it depends from the Basis of the Tongue, & runs down behind the Larynx & Trachea, it has a passage into it from the Mouth, & another from the Nose, but is so which the two passages the Palatum Molle, Uvula hang, so as to shut up occasionally, at our pleasure either the one or the other of them. The cartilaginous valve, the Epiglottis when we breathe always stands up; when any thing is swallowed, the Larynx is drawn up with a jerk under the Tongue's Root, & at the same time the Epiglottis is pressed down by the Swallowing body, so that the opening into the Trachea is covered over, but if we speak at the same time that we swallow, we endeavour to keep the Larynx down, the Aperture being open. Mucus gets into the Trachea, & raises something to expell it, for there seems to be something more than pressing down the Epiglottis necessary to shut up the Aperture, we must first of all raise up the Larynx, so that it may prevent itself to the Epiglottis more fairly, & be covered by the Root of the Tongue.

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At the root of the Epiglottis are two little Cavities, in which we judge, that sometimes a little morsel of bread &c lodges, from the Unconsciousness thereof, more than after swallowing, & which we force away by a gentle hawking. When the jaws are shut, the Cavity of the Mouth is entirely filled up by the Tongue. The Tongue & parts underneath are drawn down to make a Cavity in the Mouth, & to make a Vacuum there in Suction; any one attending to it will find that we do not suck by making Conspirations. Behind the Tongue takes an antedivision downwards, & reaches the Anterior part of the passage into the Oesophagus.

At the root or beginning of the Palatum Molle is the Orifice of the Tuba Eustachiana which opens into the posterior nostril, or upper part of the Pharynx immediately opposite to the posterior edge of the Septum Narium & leads on to the Ear. As Despus was supposed to be sometimes owing to this Tube being stuffed up with Mucus, it has been recommended in despus to syringe the Tube by introducing a pipe bent at the End into it from the Nose, but it seems hardly possible to know when we have got the Pipe into it in the living body.

It has been supposed that the immediate Organ of Smell was just so much of the Cavity Only, of the Nose, as lies directly under the Os Cariciforme because it was said that the Odour only growswendore farther: but it is plain that they are spread all down the Nerve. There is no doubt of the Organ of Smell being diffused every where over the inner Surface of the Nose. The Passage of the Nose is very narrow, & cavity clogged up by Mucus in a cold, or by the swelling of Mucous Membrane; the Cavity however is greatly extended by means of the Osseous Turbinata, & other bony Lamellae. The Tongue naturally divides itself into two parts, the root which is glandular, & the other part which is Villous; at the root of the Tongue is a pretty considerable blind hole.

skin. The Skin of the Tongue has very long Villi, it is covered over with a
 cuticular covering, as the Skin of the external parts is. The Skin is known to be
 the Organ of feeling or touch, but the Skin of the Tongue is the finest Organ of
 Touch in the body. Resalpinus says, that in his Country (Italy) Jewellers will
 tell a Diamond from any other species of Gem, or Composition by their Tongue.
 this however seems to be an exaggeration of the fineness of this Organ.
 The Tongue is also the Organ of Taste, & it is capable of tasting on its upper
 surface only. It appears that no solid body can be tasted till it is dissolved
 in a fluid, as in the saliva, for instance, that it may reach this the porous
 covering, & come immediately to the nervous surface. For we do not taste a piece
 of sugar, till we have rubbed & broken it with the Tongue, so as to melt it in
 the saliva, & if the exterior covering becomes thick with any mucus, as this upon
 the Tongue for instance, we do not taste at all. It seems that the upper sur-
 face of the Tongue is the Organ of taste alone, & not the Roof of the Mouth
 nor the Cheek, for if we lay any thing upon any part of the Mouth, except the
 Tongue, we do not taste it. We can feel with all of them, but to determine
 what is, & what is not concerned in the sensation of Taste, we must distinguish
 between Tasting & Irritation. The Palatum Molle on each side from the
 Throat forms two edges downwards, & goes towards the cavity of the Mouth,
 the other towards the hard palate. Then make two Arches on each side of the
 Uvula, an Anterior, & a Posterior, in these Arches lie the Tonsils. The
 arches are formed by the Constrictor & other Muscles of the Palatum & Pharynx.
 The Ducts of these Glands open on their surface by several Orifices. These
 Glands are often affected in Venereal Complaints, but from other causes, they
 often inflame, and swell with very irregular surfaces, & the cavities on their
 Surface.

The Mouth, Throat

Surface will be filled with Mucus, so as to appear like an Ulcer then view'd from the Mouth. We are often apt in these Cases to mistake for an Ulcer what is only a Collection of Mucus. These are Mucous Glands, & when we swallow the Tongue presses against them & squeezes out their Mucus, which forwards its deglutition. As the Tongue is seldom the Lead of a Cancer, when even it is necessary, there can be no Objection to its being extirpated, which is easily done by catching hold of it with a small hook & drawing it out, so that we can see the Tongue. Offensive Breath may be owing to rotten Teeth, or to Animal Substance sticking & putrefying about them, but the worst kind of Offensive Breath is caused by neither of these, tho' the Mouth & Teeth become so clean yet it continues, & is supposed to be a Mark of bad Health, which however is a false Supposition. Its Origin is owing to a disorder of the Tongue, for the Cavities if examin'd are found to contain a pretty firm Mucus, which being pick'd out smells very Offensively. It may be remedied by sucking & sponging the Tongue every Morn'g then with a piece of sponge fix'd at the end of a Stick to get at the Mucus; if this dont cure it, that part of the Gland where the Mucus accumulates may be cut out without any Detriment to the Patient. The Aphthous Cavity found on the inside of the Trachea is a corruption of Mucus. The Face of the Tongue is commonly nothing but a concretion of Mucus, but sometimes it is a disease of the Cuticle covering the Villous Substance, which tho' scrubbed off ever so much will not appear clean as in a healthy State. The Use of the Tongue is well known. Part of the Tongue may be cut off, & yet the Patient shall speak to lastly well. Mr Lambert at Newcastle cut a large portion of a Tongue off which was more than the Mouth could hold, & the Patient, a young woman speaks now with very little

The Mouth, Throat

very little backward. At the bottom between the Thyroid & posterior Cartilages on each side is a small blind bag, called the Sacculus Laryngis, made by a Bridge of two cap. Nibbands stretched from the Cornu Adami backwards, called the internal Ligaments. D. Ferrius supposes, that each was a Situation of these Ligaments, that the one produced a groove, & the other a sharp wound. It has been said that Drowned People are killed by the Effusion into the Larynx being shut, but upon immediate examination after death it has always been found open. We can always with a rudder catch stop our Enquiry. This might be said to be done by the Air from the Lungs, when we please, getting into the Sacculus Laryngis, & making a Valve by bringing the internal Ligaments of the right & left sides together. But when we examine the passages, it never seems capable of being entirely shut up. Tho' they don't close it up, they may so stop the passage as to be the principal Agents in Coughing. A Bull & a Cow are without them, accordingly we find that they never cough with that smart jerk that we do.

The Throat & Ear

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Lecture 72

The Thyroid Gland lies in contact with the Jugular, Pharynx, Oesophagus, & Aorta. It is much larger in Women than in Men: its Substance is manifestly Cellular, by making a puncture in it, we call it a gland, but it does not contain any, there has been one Excretory Duct found in an Enlargement of this Gland makes the true Bronchocele, which is particularly frequent in Young Women, it takes its true horse shoe shape, when it grows very large it feels soft, but Dr Hunter can't say what it contains; when much enlarged it presses on the Carotid, & receives a strong pulsation from them, which often makes a Mistaken for an Aneurism; how to distinguish it from one has been shewed already. It has been recommended to cauterize this Gland if enlarged, but this can't be done safely on account of its being so near the Carotid Arteries. Mr Gorch of Nov. which has published a Case in which a Cyst formed in this Gland broke into the Trachea, & suffocated the Patient instantly. To a Lady who had this Gland greatly enlarged, & very soft Dr Hunter advised a puncture, a bloody Water was discharged, high suppurative Issues came on &c and the Patient to be in great danger, but after a time she perfectly recovered. The Organ of hearing consists of a number of parts, the external Ear, the Mædus auditoria, the cavity of the Tympanum, & the Salpinx. The upper part of the Ear is called the Helix, opposite to this is the Antihelix, below the Antihelix is a little Eminence called the Tragus, which may be pushed over the Mædus Auditoria, the little Eminence opposite this is called Antitragus. The Substance of the external Ear is a growth of that firmness, as always to preserve its proper form. In Quadrupeds it is larger than in the human body, & is moved by them, as we conceive, towards the place whence sound comes. There are several Muscles described by Anatomists, supposed to move the Helix, Antihelix, & other parts of

The Ear

parts of this Organ so as to adapt the external Ear to receive & convey a life sound; but they hardly deserve the name of Nerves, nor can we perceive any of the motions, that are talk'd of. From the winding of the External Ear by an continued Cavity, concurring in the Meatus. All Physiologists agree that it collects the Sound, & conveys it into the Meatus; if so we may suppose hearing would be considerably injured by the Sops of the External Ear. The Gristle of the external Ear is continued inward, & makes the outer part of the Meatus auditivus. The inner part of it is all bony at the upper & posterior part of the Meatus is membranous, & on this part are many little dark colored ovalish bodies, supposed to be the Glandulae Ceruminis; but we can press nothing out of them. The width of this Canal is commonly the size of a Goose quill terminated inwardly by the Membrana Tympani; & as the Membrana Tympani is plac'd obliquely against the Meatus, nearer to the horizontal than to the Vertical position, we cannot determine the Exact length of the Meatus; it is much shorter at top than at bottom. The Canal goes inwards & forwards with a gentle winding. The Meatus leads into a Cavity call'd the Tympanum, divid'd thro' from the Meatus by the Membrana Tympani. It has been common to call the Membrane, the Tympanum, as if the parchment stretch'd across the Head was the only part of a Drum, but it is better to call the cavity the Drum, that is the Tympanum, & the other, the Membrane of the Tympanum. The Membrane seems to be a little more Vertical in an Adult, than in a young Subject. The outer side of the Membrana Tympani is hollow'd like a Funnel: the upper part of the handle of the Malleus is inserted into the Center of the inside, & pulls it inwards, & looking upon the outside of the Malleus, appears thro'. As there is a Membrane, which covers the Pupil of the Eye in a Trade, so likewise the Ear has a Membrane spread over the outside of the

Membrane,

membrana Tympani, so fine as to appear like Mucus: how thin it disappears
 by the time of Birth is not known. Naturally, the Membrana Tympani is imper-
 ious, the some people have said it is perforated, and as a proof of its being so
 we are told of People discharging the fumes of Tobacco from the Mouth out at
 The Ear by the Tubae Eustachiana; which opens into the Ear behind the Membrana
 Tympani. When this is the Case, which is much more common than it is
 generally imagined to be, the hole is certainly the Effect of some disease.
 Discharge of matter from the inside of the Ear is very common; if the Ear-ach
 is a very frequent complaint, therefore from inflammation and suppuration
 we may easily account for this unnatural appearance. The Cavity
 of the Tympanum is oblong, of considerable extent from before to behind;
 very narrow & unequal, spreading the inside of the Pars Petrosa of the
 Temporal bone, it leads forwards into the Nose by the Eustachian Tube
 (a bony ring on the edge of the Temporal bone marks the place where the
 Membrana Tympani is spread). The inside of the Malleus, Group of the
 Temporal bone is a Compag of little bony Cells, that communicate all with
 one another, and with the Cavity of the Tympanum. The Ossicula are all
 placed in the Cavity of the Tympanum immediately behind the Membrane,
 commonly reckoned four in Number, Malleus, Incus, & Os Orbiculare,
 but the last bone is only a process of the Incus, so that in reality there are
 but three bones. The Malleus is bent at the middle between the head
 and handle, where it has two processes, one a long sharp one, and
 a short blunt one, the head lies upwards and inwards, lodged in a concav-
 ity of the large End of the Incus, it resembles Hercules's Club much more than
 a Hammer.

an Hammer, it is fixed to the inside of the edge of the Membrana Tympani by the blood process. So the small end of the Incus is fixed the Apex of the Stapes. The Stapes exactly resembles a Staircase, only that one side borders it a little more than the other. These bones make a Chain quite across the cavity from the Membrana to the labyrinth. The Basis of the Stapes stands upon the Foramina Ovalis, the passage into the labyrinth, since it has been said that sound striking upon the Membrana Tympani is communicated to the chain of bones, so that their vibration gives the sensation of hearing to the Auditory Nerves. It is supposed that we adapt the cavity of the Ear to the quantity, & perhaps quality of sounds, as we do the Eye to Light. Some have described the motions of the Muscles, but it is better to say only that they are movable.

The Ear

Lecture 73

Between the Malleus & Incus, the long process of the Incus carries a small filament of a Nerve, & because it runs across the Membrana Tympani in the same manner as the Chord does across the parchment of a Drum, it is called the Chorda Tympani. The Sphincter lies in that part of the Pars Petrosa that is immediately within the cavity of the Sphincter: its middle part is narrow & called Vestibulum, its posterior end contains three semicircular Canals, the anterior end is called the Cochlea from its resemblance to a snail's Shell, immediately upon the Vestibulum lies the Fenestra Ovalis & Fenestra Rotunda. The Cochlea has a Septum, that winds thro' the middle of the Spire, so that it contains two spiral Cavities, which are called the Superior & Inferior Scales, communicating at the Apice of the Cochlea, but I think never could perceive any thing like a Communication, for tho' he poured Jewish Silver into the One, it did not come out at the Other. All these Cavities are lined with a Membrane that is very Vascular. The Nature of Sound, & the manner in which it is conveyed, is modified not being nearly so well understood as the Nature of Vision, we consequently know less of the Use of the different parts of the Ear than we do of the Eye. Every body supposes that the External Ear, Meatus, & Cavity of the Tympanum, the Membrana Tympani, and part of the Sphincter are only preparatory to the more internal parts, to collect Sound, & convey it to the immediate Organ of Hearing. The External Ear, and Meatus undoubtedly serve as a Tunnel to convey the Sound. As a great Number of Rays of Light brought to a point on the Retina produce a strong sense of Light, so a great Number of Rays of Sound will produce a proportional Effect on the Auditory Nerve. The Firing of a Cannon often makes those

The Ear

Those Persons deaf whose business it is to be close to them at that time, and it is said that after proving the Cannon, or any violent firing, their Ears have been known to bleed; very commonly there is a small artery running along the Tympanum, which perhaps is ruptured along with the Tympanum in this Case. Some have supposed the Septum of the Scale of the Cochlea to be the immediate Organ of hearing. At its beginning it is broad, and grows narrower, and narrower as it advances to the Apex, therefore they say that the Nervous Chords are stretched across it, which decrease in length, as the Septum decreases in breadth; that the Chords are made to vibrate, will produce a greater or less sensation of sound in proportion as a longer, or a shorter one is made to vibrate, in the same manner as the string of a Violin is made to vibrate, which is in Union with the sound produced by the Vibration of a string of another Violin. Mr John Hunter thinks that the three Semicircular Canals are the immediate Organs of hearing, for he finds that in Comparative Anatomy, these parts are almost always present, whereas several of the others are frequently wanting. The Diseases of the Ear are but little understood. An opacity in the Eye, gives insensibility of the optic Nerve, and the Cause of blindness, so in the Ear there is a deafness similar to the Gutta Serena, that is, from effusion of the Nerve, for hearing will vary according to the Nerves of the Body in general being weak or stronger. There is deafness too similar to Opacity in the Eye, something clogging up the passage, or preventing sound from passing properly, and fixed to the immediate Organ of hearing. When the deafness is not Nervous, we can do nothing for it, if the cause is more internal than the Meatus Auditoris. If the Meatus is stopped up by Wax, that may be washed away by Syringing.

Syringing the Ear, the Cotton or Wool put into the Ear occasions and increases this complaint, for little loose pieces are left in, and have the Wax greatly accumulated on them. A Mexican was cured of deafness by syringing his Ears, & immediately after the plugs of Wax came out, and for some length of time after his Hearing was so acute, that the common sound of any one conversing was too powerful, and gave him pain, but this wore off gradually. There frequently are Abscesses in the Ear, and even the *Acute Auditis* comes and sometimes along with the matter, notwithstanding which the Patient seems to hear tolerably well. A Person might feel a vibration of the Ear by any part of the Surface of his body, without having anything like an Ear to collect Sound, - as also a man with a *Gutta Serena* is sensible of the light of the Sun when his Eye is turned towards it not from a perception of light, but from the Warmth he feels upon his Eye.

Chirurgical Operations

Introduction, Lecture, 7th

39

There is no saying where Surgery had it's beginning: there have been found no People without it, therefore it may be considered as coequal with mankind. Nature & Love must have taught a Cure for many disorders and Chirurgical Means must have arisen from the Observation, & Experience of what happened from the Inconveniences of any one wishing to afford relief or assistance. It is an undetermined question, whether Physicians, or whether Surgeons; one first, probably the first Man that had an Accident was the first Surgeon, to himself too: When afterwards meeting with Accidents would apply to him as the most likely Person to help them who had helped himself, not choosing to rely on their own Judgment, now there is some body to apply to, as he did when he had no body to apply to that knew more of the Matter than himself. The cutting out of Urinary, & pulling off dead parts from the body was undoubtedly one part of Surgery early in Practice. Any one who took care of a wounded Person would naturally consider every thing relative to the Cure, therefore he would direct for food & if it had been observed that opening the body had been useful, some purging herb for Medicine. So that Physicians & Surgery were generally both united in one Man in all Countries. It was so among the Greeks who are the Oldest Practitioners we know of. We commonly now divide the Profession into three parts, the Physician, the Surgeon, & the Apothecary. Celsus gives us the Method of curing diseases under three heads, by Diet, by Medicine, & by Manual Operation, & thinks that the last is the most ancient of the three. He mentions the names of several Authors, who professed & wrote on the last branch alone, particularly, Greeks of Asia; India: whose works are lost to us, & at his time this branch was divided from the rest. From the nature of the thing indeed it must have necessarily been divided, for all Men are not of that firmness of mind, and

Dedat

Deceitful, of Hand so requisite in the Office of a Surgeon, to work properly upon the most pitious Objects without being affected too much at their distress. And a Man who by some lucky Accident had gained the reputation of a good Surgeon, would be so frequently applied to in similar matters, that he would find employment enough in Surgery alone, & would as yet want nothing else. This might be done in a populous place, where the number of Inhabitants was sufficient to afford him business in one branch alone, by which he might get a respectable Maintenance. It was a question particularly at the time of Diemad, & others of his Contemporaries, who were great admirers of Greek Learning, whether the Moderns had improved Surgery in any thing? It was then given in the Negative, on the side of the Ancients, but now no one withholds the Praise from the Moderns so justly due to them.

It is commonly said that Surgery consists of five parts, therefore called the Pentateuch of Surgery, these, Wounds, Scissers, Ulcers, Fractures and Dislocations. Those with the Operative part take in the whole. It is however more proper to say it consists of four parts, viz. Union, Division, Subtraction, & Addition. The Order that is commonly followed in treating of Chirurgical Operations is to begin at the Head, then go down to the Feet, and take the Extremities the last, but we shall deviate from this Rule. Before we determine upon an Operation especially if it be one of consequence, we should consider the following Maxims —

1. — Because of the Nature of the Disease —
2. — Will the Disease be removed more tolerable by the Operation —
3. — Will the Patient admit of the Risk of Life incurred by the Operation?
4. — Is there any Accident likely to happen, which might be imputed to the Operation, and thereby hurt its reputation?

5. We must accomodate ourselves to the habit of body, & mind.
6. Is it better to do the Operation now, or at another time?
7. Will it be better to do the Operation, or let it alone, from considering the Chance of doing well if it is, and if it is not performed? Better to leave a doubtful Case to Nature.
8. Endeavour to persuade a Patient into an Approbation of the Operation.
9. Let every Operation be done in as simple a Manner as possible.
10. Take care to have very good Instruments, and enough of them in case of an accident.
11. Adapt the Method of doing the Operation to the particular Case, and go thro' the Operation first of all in the Imagination.
12. Keep all formidable Preparations for the Operation from the Patient.

Sutures

Lecture th 75

A Divided part will shrink and the two wounded edges will secede, & there will be a cavity. This cavity will be filled by a Process of Nature, by granulation, & when filled up the whole will be cicatrized over in two ways, the old Skin is drawn out round it from the edge of the Wound, & a new Skin covers the Center; The new Skin is very small in proportion to the Wound, its Surface is not grained like as the Skin is, and is of a different texture. We observe that a round Wound will not heal so well as an oblong one, because the Skin when drawn to a narrow Center don't lie at ease, it will heal more readily if the edge of the Skin is notched & made uneven, Old Sores will not heal, or if they do heal they will break out again, for the long continued inflammation has so united all the fibres of the Cellular Membrane that they are no longer loose, so that the Skin is bound down all round, & cannot be drawn over the Sore to cicatrize it. This seems to be the reason why a good quantity of Skin being left, when a large Wound is made in some Operations is of Service. Old Sores are troublesome too from this having become habitual.

Without waiting for this tedious Process Surgeons have devised the adhesion of the Lips of the Wound together so that they may unite by inoculation. This is done by Bandage or by Suture. But before we attempt this, we must consider whether the wound is proper, whether it contains any extraneous body, and whether it is contused so that Suppuration may ensue. We have been advised not to sew up a Poisoned Wound. In this country however

however we have hardly any such thing as a Poisoned Wound. When a Wound is poisoned, the Lymphatics generally inflame and mark the Skin with Lines that shew their very course. A Boy cut his thumb with a knife, the Wound festured, the whole hand & arm inflamed, red lines ran from the finger up to his Arter. Pit, and he was attacked with St. Vitus's Dance, and a Mixture of Hemiplegia. From the circumstance of the red Lines, D'Kerdel concludes that the knife had been poisoned by some means or other. The Bite of a mad Dog is a poisoned Wound. D'Meadi Lixivium does nothing in this case. The only medicine that seems to be of any use is Hells. It is not certain that the Scabathing does any good.

The best way is to cut out the bitten part immediately, even take off a finger or two, and if it is a part that will not admit safely of being cut out, we should cauterise as deep as we can with Safety.

Transverse Wounds at the joints & bending parts require only a particular position of the parts, and dressing right by Bandages to bring the Lips together so as to unite. In Superficial Oblique wounds the dry Suture with proper bandage, is all that is necessary. In Superficial Longitudinal Wounds require only the united bandages. In deeper Wounds either transverse or Oblique Stitching is necessary. The Stitches should be taken about the same distance from the lips as the wound is deep, the Wound should be stitched up bleeding, and the edges only just brought simply into contact. Sutures hardly ever are usefull; they who approve of them say, that they make the Scar lip, but this is wrong, for as soon as

Sutures

soon as the wound has suppurated, the skin will be drawn together naturally, and only a line of cicatrix left when all is healed, supposing that we have left the wound alone to itself. Wounds of the Tendons were supposed to be very dangerous especially if partially divided. Tendons cut or torn thro' don't require to be stitched, when the Tendo Achillis was cut thro' or ruptured, it was a common thing to bring the divided ends together by a suture, so in other Tendons, but they only require to be brought as much into contact as possible, putting the Limb into a favourable position, so that Surgeons no longer use the Suture here. It was found, when great symptoms of inflammation came on, that it was necessary to take out the Stitch, nevertheless the divided Tendon united.

Dropsy

Lecture 76

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Dropsy is of two kinds either local or universal, both are the Objects of Chirurgical Means. In Anasarca the Scarifications should be small, either upon the Small of the Leg or on the foot; a few punctures will, discharge a great deal of Water. It has been said that small Wound will heal up soon, and if so, new ones may be made without giving much pain to a cold Dropsical Leg. Small incisions are not so apt to inflame as large ones, & when the incisions are inflamed, the Water ceases to flow, when large incisions likewise are made, the limb is apt to mortify, but when small ones are made, hardly ever. Blisters have been used to take off Anasarca swellings, but from these the Water don't continue to run, in such quantity, as from punctures; tho' the Skin stretched by the Water is very porous, yet it soon inflames, & is hardened so that the Water does not pass thro' it. The Aescetes may readily be distinguished by the Undulation. The carrying off the Water of an Anasarca will not take off the Aescetes. Almost all we do for the cure of Dropsy by Medicine is to little purpose, unless in young & very good Habits. Strong Purgers are particularly best. Sometimes Dropsies cure themselves without our being able to assign any apparent cause; Purgings sweatings and increased Secretions of Urine break out naturally, the Swellings subside and the Patient gets perfectly well. We have nothing that will make the Absorbing Vessels do their Office more briskly, as our Purgers, Diuretics &c. only increase the Weakness and consequently the Dropsical Complaint.

D^r. Hunter related a Case of a Gentlewoman who was labouring under a Dropsy, & she was cured of it in a very singular Manner. In Scotland where this Lady lived, it was a Custom to have the Sacrament administered

administered once a year in every Parish, & she being a very religious woman was desirous of receiving it in the adjoining Parishes as well as in her own for which purpose ill as she was, she set off on horseback behind her servant. As they were riding along on the top of a smooth but rather hastily declining descent, a covey of Partridges flew up & frightened the horse upon which he started & she was immediately thrown & kept rolling over & over from the top of this precipice to the bottom, & when the servant came to her she was quite senseless, & as soon however as he was able to get her assistance, they lifted her up & she gradually came to her senses, but there was such an amazing quantity of water flowed from her with her Urine, that before she reached home, she was almost as small again as when she set out. I'm sure the discharge continued till she was perfectly cured & Dr Ross had been long labouring under an Aseita, & was at last so much reduced & his general health so much impaired that his stomach rejected every thing that was thrown into it, except a Spoonfull of Chocolate which he used to take 3 times a day; one day he found himself very sick after taking his Chocolate as usual, & was greatly frightened thinking now that nothing would stay on his stomach, that consequently he must die. His sickness increased till he vomited & was surprised to see that he brought up a large quantity of water besides the Chocolate he had just drank. he could not imagine how this could be, for he had taken nothing for several days, but his Chocolate; In a few hours after he felt an uncommon swelling &c in his bowels, & then had two or three purging stools successively which brought away a great quantity of water; he now sent for Dr Hunter, who advised him, as this appeared to be an effort of nature to cure his complaint, to assist her by some gentle Purgative. He accordingly took some Tincture of Rhubarb by the assistance of which

of which he got perfectly recovered, & lived two years afterwards, tho' he was an old Man, & had been long very infirm previous to this disease — we must be particularly carefull that we do not precipitately determine on Tapping in Women, for they may be with Child & deliver. The method of puncturing the Belly among the old Surgeons was with a narrow pointed knife, for they knew nothing of the Trocar, and they let out the Water gradually and not all at once, thereby to avoid the terrible faintings or even Death, which they found often to ensue upon its being let out all at once. D^r Mead first thought the Cause, why People fainted and even died, after the Water was drawn off suddenly, was on account of the pressure of the Water, on the Heart, Lungs &c being removed all at once, he said that the pressure being removed, the Blood easily accumulated there, and that it was drawn suddenly from the Heart so as to produce those Effects during the Operation, therefore a bandage was used to make an artificial pressure by being drawn tighter as the Water was discharged. It prevents however no other pressure is made than that of the bandage. The best method of Tapping is without using any pressure, but placing the Patient on a Couch or Bed, so that no faintings will arise, and we shall get out more Water if we make the Left side the most depending. We prefer the left side to the right to avoid the Liver more certainly, as that Viscus is often found greatly enlarged in Dropsical Cases, and so indeed sometimes is the Spleen. We thrust the Trocar into the Abdomen midway between the Navel and the anterior point of the Spine of the Os Ilium. We chose this part —

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pract to avoid the Epigastric Artery, which runs up from Poupart's Ligament, along the inside of the Rectus Abdominis. We pierce, on the outside of that muscle. Some have recommended a small wound to be made in the skin first with a Lancet, because they say the edge of the Trocar don't cut; but this is unnecessary, for with a small stab the Trocar easily pierces thro' all. When all is over we should gently turn the Canula about to get out with as little pain as possible. The wound, tho' penetrating, never does amiss. The Patients body should be rolled for a length of time afterwards, or laced in a waistcoat, which is better than a Roller. Mr John Hunter prefers not rolling the Patients body for two or three days after the operation; as he thinks they are liable to those pains consequent on the operation, if not rolled directly. The round Trocar does better than the flat one, because it makes a less wound, & if done quickly gives hardly any pain. Sometimes the water of a Dropsy is gelatinous, but is never so where lodged in the cavity of the Abdomen. It hardly ever happens but when a Woman is tapped, which makes it seem as if it was contained in the Ovarium. Dr Hunter has only seen this case once happen in a Man, which proved to be an Encysted Dropsy of the Liver. Cysts contain Hydrids which are full either of water, or of jelly, and the jelly is sometimes thicker, sometimes thinner. The Dropsy of the Ovarium makes a hard Tumor at the bottom of the Belly, and before it is grown very big it is moveable, and may be moved from side to side by the hand, the health is good, the Nurses as usual; in short except from the Swelling the Woman feels nothing at all. Sometimes the fluid is contained in more than

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more than one Day, and by rubbing the hand over the swelling we can feel the inequalities of the Cysts. In time it fills up the Abdomen, distends it, and might be easily mistaken for Rocks. When it becomes big, it becomes troublesome by pressing on the Viscera, particularly the Rectum, and the Bladder, which last is pressed against the Os Pubis. The Faces and Urine are not properly evacuated. Patients in this Case may be eased for the present by kneeling and lowering the Shoulders forwards, by this means the weight of the Tumour will be thrown off from the Pelvis towards the Chest, and having suffered greatly from the Pressure, they will be eased immediately. By the progress Ill. health is brought on, which in time will kill the Woman if the Disease remains. we can do nothing material by way of Cure, for we cannot cure them, we can only ease the Woman from time to time by puncturing with a Trocar; the water will nevertheless accumulate. we must direct her how to take advantage of that position, which will ease her for the present, & attend to the general health. If there happens to be but one Cyst, the Operation goes on as in the Ascites, but we should use a large Trocar lest the fluid should be gelatinous: if there are more than one Cyst, we can only take one at a time, after we have once opened the Ovarium, the water will again accumulate from it, but will be voided thro' the Opening into the Abdomen. M^r Le Dran has proposed a radical cure of this complaint by making incision into the Ovarium, but it don't seem to be

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to be probable for generally there are more than one Bag, which, will acquire so many different incisions. Some have recommended Excision, but we cannot see where we ought to cut, were we not to insist upon the danger that must attend such a penetrating Wound of the Abdomen. The Tumor as it extends forms Adhesions to all the neighbouring parts, it dont adhere by a Peduncle only, so as that we might draw it forward, and cut it off.

Dropsy in the duplicature of the Peritoneum has been very much talked of, but it appears to be nothing more than Dropsy of the Cellular Membrane near it, either diffused thro' the Cells, or contained in a Cyst. Long continued Friction with the hand smeared with Oil is of great Service to Dropsical Limbs.

Hernia

Lecture 7th

By a rupture is understood a protrusion of some of the Viscera of the Abdomen so as to form an external Tumour when this happens in the Rings of the Abdominal Muscles, it is called the Rupture, if under Poupart's Ligament Crural or Femoral, if at the Navel, umbilical, if at any other part of the Belly, Ventral. The Name, Rupture implies that the part is burst, hence a broken belly signifies the same, but in the common rupture that appears gradually the Peritoneum is never ruptured, but it is only protruded out of the Abdomen, stretched & elongated. Perhaps when a rupture comes on suddenly from some great Violence, & it is at that time very large, the Peritoneum is ruptured. As the Tumour increases of course the Strain of the Scrotum rises, till it almost entirely hides the Penis. The protruded parts always lie within a Sac, & the spermatic Artery & Vein with the Vas Deferens lie behind the Opening into the Sac. After having returned the parts into the Abdomen there is such a thickening underneath the finger as gives the feel as if you was still remaining undrained. The Sac is never to be returned, for it is fixed by the Cellular Membrane of the Scrotum. As a Hernia increases it pushes downwards, displaces itself a way thro' the Center of the spermatic Cord, so as to separate the Artery, Vein & Vas Deferens. When the parts protrude they do not Adhere to the Sac, commonly they are easily returned into the Abdomen when the Patient lies on his back, but when they adhere to the Sac they never go up. The prostate is seldom found to Adhere, which is perhaps owing to their Cristalline Motion. Those parts which have no Cristalline Motion are what are commonly found to Adhere as the Omentum & Appendix Ceci. The Scrotum remains open into the Abdomen.

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Abdomen in a young Child, & thro' this Opening the Intestine or Omentum easily pushes out in Coughing or Crying & come into Contact with the Testicles. This is what Haller calls the Hernia Congenita. All other Hernia have a Sac distinct from the Cavity of the Tunica Vaginalis. Testis & Sax Habitu are said to be liable to Eruptures. That People are more commonly Subject to Hernia than lean, for by the increasing bulk of Abdominal Contents, when the Vent is accumulating, if there is any weak part, they will push the Peritoneum out there. Women that have born Children, have very often Hernia, especially Umbilical Hernia, the Abdominal Contents are precluded by the efforts used in birth. The Hernial Sac is smallest at its upper part, & the Tumor is of a Pyramidal figure, because at its upper part it is precluded by the Torus or Lig. & if the Patient has worn a Truss the upper part is still narrower, for then it is prevented still more from dilating by the Pad pressing on that place, and perhaps part of it is thus made to grow together. It is sometimes very difficult to distinguish a Rupture from other Disorders especially from an Hydrocele. Any Medicine given internally will have but little Effect, and none farther than strengthening the body. A Truss is the only thing that can be of any Service, and should be made of truly Elastic Steel. When a Truss is worn for a Cure, the Rupture should never be suffered to come down, as therefore should be worn night & Day, & on once coming down undoes all that has been done in a Month before. Young Men & Children get well very commonly by a Truss. The Opening into the Sac from

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from the abdomen is made by the constant pressure of its two sides together to close up, & is Obliterated. Its Use should therefore be persevered in for a length of time, even two or three years. The Hernia Congenita that happens to young Children just after Birth does well, & that very soon provided the protruded parts are reduced & kept up. Sometime it happens that the Truss occasions painfull Vesicels in which case it must be left off, & the Hernia suffered to remain as it is. Twenty different Operations have been devised for the cure of those Vegetures, which are easily reduced. Some have advised cutting off part of the Sac, others to destroy part of the Sac with a Caustic, but Dr Hunter dissuades from all these Methods, for he says, while the Tendon remains dilated, the Cicatrix will not be strong enough to resist the pressure of the Abdominal Viscera, & we cannot think of curing an Hernia at the expence of a Testicle. In a Woman perhaps on this account, the Caustic might be more preferable, but the Rupture is at least made so tolerable by a Truss, that these Methods are hardly ever worth the while to be tried. Now Inflammation & strangulation come on is not undoubted, but the case is then very dangerous, & we must immediately endeavour to reduce the Hernia, for the longer it continues unreduced, the greater will be the danger of Reduction, owing as we apprehend, to the Blood being detained & increasing the Swell. When we attempt to make Reduction, we must gently press the upper part of the Sac narrow with the fingers of one hand, & press the Hernial contents upwards with the fingers of the other hand, hummoring & varying the pressure from side to side, the knees being bent forwards & the body backwards to relax the parts at the same.

Hernia.

the same time. The pressure should be continued for some considerable time, for we may dilate the opening into the Abdomen by degrees, till at last we get the Contents all up, after having given the Patient a good deal of pain, tired ourselves, it often happens that just as we are determining to leave off, they go up all at once, then the pain & other symptoms cease, we should even for the last attempt use some considerable pressure, & with a jerk to give all possible chance for Reduction before we desist. When the Puncture has been undressing down for a number of years, we may conclude there is Adhesion to the Bag, your Attempts will be to no purpose. In all cases, our Endeavours for Reduction must be made at once, if we do not succeed, then determine upon the Operation, without waiting to see what Bleeding, Erysipelas, Inflammation or Abscess will do, which appear to do nothing at all.

The Intent of the Operation is to cut the strangulated part free. All Surgeons allow when the above symptoms are come on, that the Patient must die, if the Operation is not performed, yet they are greatly divided about the importance of the consequences of the Operation; Some say it is attended with but little danger, Others that it is exceeding dangerous. It certainly is dangerous, as are all penetrating Wounds of the Abdomen, but the danger will increase in proportion as the Operation is longer delayed. We cannot say how long it may be deferred safely, therefore it is best to perform it immediately, after our first & proper Attempt has proved ineffectual. It has been supposed that a small Puncture, when strangulated is more dangerous than a large one under the like circumstances, because the large one cannot be so completely strangulated as to entirely interrupt the Circulation, & so bring on a Modification so soon as in a small one: but this Observation is of little use in practice, as in two Persons with similar diseases, the one shall die in two or three

hours.

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flows, the other live as many days. The purpose of the operation is to ~~cut~~ cut the Tendon that gets too strongly on the protuded contents. This we can do by making an incision immediately down from the Skin upon it without wounding the Contents, for they having room without the Tendon rise up, so that it makes a groove in them below their Sac. We therefore open the Sac at its lowest part first, & then cut upwards to the Tendon by sliding along a cutting instrument directed by the finger, we begin by making an incision from the said opposite to the thing, down to the lower part of the Tendon thro' the cellular Membrane, this must be done by carefully dissection till we come to a smooth surface, which is the Peritoneal Muscle; we cut thro' this Muscle with Care, & then we come to the outside of the Hernial Sac; M^r Winaud has recommended a hook to catch hold of, & draw up the Sac from the Contents, that we may make an opening into it with safety, but if a Person cuts carefully he may do it without any other Instrument than the Knife; After having made a small opening we must lay the lower part of the Sac open with a pair of Vissers, & then open the upper part with the same to the Finger, all now is laid open but the strangulated Tendon & sufficient room is given for examining the state of the Hernia. Then we are to introduce M^r Winaud's crooked button pointed Bistoury, & push the Tendon into the Abdomen, & cut the Tendon upward & downward, every thing is now set at liberty & made ready for being returned up into the Abdomen, a small incision of the Tendon will be sufficient to release the Stricture. If all is in a good state, the protuded parts may be returned into the Abdomen without any more to do, but if the Induration is mortified, we are advised to cut off the mortified part, & suture the divided ends of the Intestine by the Mesentery to the external wound just without the Tendon after we have returned the other parts, so that it may remain an Anus & sometimes the divided Ends have been found to unite, & the Cases have taken their Old Course after the External Wound healed up. If there is any part of the

Upper Room

Epiploon, Mortified, it must be cut away before we adjoin it, leaving only
 a little to slough off, & in doing this there will be no occasion for a
 Ligature; If there are small Adhesions, we must cut thru them: If the
 adhesions are considerable, we must be content to have saved the Patient's
 Life for the present & leave the parts in the same situation they were in
 before the violent Symptoms came on, now that the Stricture is taken off,
 there will be no occasion to sew up the Wound in the Scrotum, we need
 only put a couple of Stitches at the upper part by the ring to prevent
 the cavity of the Abdomen from being exposed as much as possible, which
 Mr John Hunter thinks is the chief cause of all the mischief after this
 operation. If the finger should by chance have wounded the Intestine
 in opening the Sac, we are advised to keep the wounded part at the
 bottom of the Wound in the Scrotum by a Ligature hanging out, so
 that the wounded edges of the Intestine may grow & unite with the
 granulating Wound in the Scrotum, & thus be consolidated with & closed
 up by the parts. In treating Penetrating Wounds of the Abdomen, we
 should sew up the Wound without including the Peritoneum in the
 Ligature, after we have returned any of the Abdominal Contents that
 might have protruded. If the aperture is too narrow for this Reduction
 we must dilate it by a small incision. If the protruded parts are
 wounded or mortified, we must treat them in the same manner as we
 would in Ulcers. The operation in Hernia, & that of Gastrotomy
 are then very similar.

Hernia

Lecture 78th

The Present Professor instructs us in case of a strangulated Hernia to make an incision down upon the Tendon that makes the ring, then insinuate a Director under the Tendonous part a little above the ring, conveying it downwards between the Tendon & Muscle underneath, bring the End out at the ring & cut clear thro' upon the Director, by this means, he says, the strangulating Tendon may be cut without opening the Sac, or penetrating the Cavity of the Abdomen. The Surgeons of Paris have often performed the operation in this manner.

The great Objections to it are the following. 1st we are left entirely ignorant of the State of the Intestine at the time of the operation. 2^d the Groove or furrow caused by the ring compressing the Mouth of the Sac, makes it very difficult to cut on that part without wounding the Intestine, & lastly the Strangulation is sometimes caused by the Mouth of the Sac in dependant of the Tendon, & then cutting the Tendon is of no Service. The Epiplocele is difficult to reduce, because of the Bulk of Fat in the Epiploon, & generally Hernia happen to Fat People; the Difficulty is such that we cannot at any time return it into the Abdomen. Some have advised Reduction to be made by making the Patient lean, & if there is no adhesion this will do, for as the fat of the body is diminished, the bulk of the Epiploon is diminished so as to admit of being put up. Some have recommended the operation in this case very strongly as being only to cut off a bit of Fat, yet many have died in consequence of it's being done. It cannot be too strongly inculcated, that all penetrating wounds of the Abdomen are dangerous. If an Epiplocele can't be returned

Hernia

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returned on account of Adhesion, yet a Surgeon should be worn to prevent any Intestine getting down. There is a chance of the Surgeon by preserving the opening of the Sac & Epiploon continually together, bringing on such an Union as shall entirely prevent the descent of any thing else. Femoral Hernia seldom grow big, for Douglas's Ligament will not suffer any considerable quantity of Intestine to descend. When they get under the Sac, they have always a Sac, & are generally from a Misdoing to a Goose's Egg in size. They must be reduced & kept up by a Truss, which however is a difficult thing, for the Motion of the Thigh is continually throwing the Sac upwards. When a Femoral Hernia comes to a Strangulation, we should press to the utmost to extract it. If we cannot extract it success must be had to the Operation. We must open the Sac very cautiously, for it generally adheres to the turn of the Intestine that is strangulated by a kind of Mucus. This rupture is often unattended to, for it is generally but small, it is commonly very hard like a Ball, & so much resembles an Indurated Gland, as easily to be mistaken for a Bubo if we do not examine it thoroughly. One small turn of Intestine usually constitutes this Hernia. To operate for the strangulated Femoral Hernia, we make a longitudinal incision exactly midway between the projecting part of the Os Pubis, & Anterior Superior Spine of the Os Ilium thro' the Skin, Cellular Membrane very carefully, till we come to the Tendon that makes the Ligament to the Sac. We must open the Sac downward to the bottom, & upward to the Ligament with the Crooked Saisor, then gently insinuate the Crooked Buttonpointed Bistoury under the Ligament into the Abdomen & cut it. If we cut the Tendon upward &

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inward we shall cut the Spinalis Artery, & if we cut upwardly outward we shall probably cut the Epigastric Artery. As the two Arteries cross each other some have advised us to use a knife that is blunt for cutting the Tendon, thinking thereby to avoid the two Arteries. Mr. Bernard directs us to use a blunt hook to make way for the reduction of the parts, by drawing the edge of the Tendon upwards from them, but tho' this seems plausible, we should rather cut the Tendon, as if we cut directly upwards we shall pretty certainly avoid both Arteries. Women are more liable to Exomphalos than to any other Hernia; Men have it but seldom; This in a Child may be cured by pressure; a Compres must be placed upon the opening after the parts are reduced; & be confined in its place by a sticking plaster spread on strong Linnen: In very fat People the navel lays as in a Well in such a Case it is best to make Bolsters of the Temple Robbers cutting pieces across from the view of a Canon piece to a little point, placing them on each other in form of a Pyramid. A little Cotton is to be laid on the Navel & upon that the Apex of the Pyramid is over all a broad piece of plaster with a margin, which is to be secured with a Dignity Bandage: If it is strangulated, & the reduction cannot be effected, the operation of freeing the Intestine must be determined on without delay, we may make the incision on either side of the Tumor first opening the Sac & then with a knife used in the Buttock enlarge the opening; this is commonly ordered to be done towards the left side, which we avoid the Umbilical Ligament, but cutting that is of no consequence, as it never remains pervious so low down. This is after a very pressing operation, because the contents of the Sac sometimes lay immediately over the ^{opening into} ~~contents of~~ the Abdomen.

Virtual

Ventral Ruptures seldom require the operation, for the opening is not so narrow generally as to strangulate the protruded parts, Ruptures are said sometimes to happen thro' the Foramen Magnum Ischii, but there can never be the object of a Chirurgical Inquiry. Nothing can be done for them.

Hydrocele

Hydrocele is said to be of two kinds; that in which the water is in the Cellular Membrane, & that in which the water is in the Tunica Vaginalis Propria Testis, but the latter is the only true Hydrocele. When water is collected in the Cellular Membrane, the Testum is equally distended on both sides most so at the bottom & feels reddematous, a little puncture or two at the bottom will evacuate all the water; Water in the Tunica Vaginalis propria Testis forms the true Hydrocele. The swelling at first appears like an enlarged Testicle, afterward the water may be felt on the forepart & sides, behind we feel a fleshy substance which is the Testicle. There is a very particular feel in a bag of water, very different from that of fleshy substances, & therefore we may generally readily distinguish an Hydrocele from an Hernia. Another particularity however which is always observable will never fail to set us right, and that is, that in the Hydrocele the swelling is confined to the Testum & in the Hernia the swelling is continued from the Abdominal Ring all the way down to the Testicle, & the Patient will generally have observed it to have been mended & disappear on lying in bed &c. & coming down again on coughing, straining, &c. the like. The Turnout is largest at the bottom whereas in an Hernia the swelling is greatest at the upper part. The spermatic cord may be commonly felt small & distinct, but sometimes the water defects its way upward.

Hydrocele

upwards & press the upper part of the Tunica Vaginalis, so as high
as to make the Tumor appear as if it came out from the Abdomen at
the Unger, in such a Case it may easily be mistaken for a Hernia
often times after it is collected in the Tunica Vaginalis & the Testicle
is at the same time diseased & enlarged sometimes the Tunica Vag-
inalis adheres to the Testicle, so as to make two or more Cavities, &
if a Trocar is thrust into an Hydrocele in this state, it will evacuate
one Cavity & not the rest, this is called the Encysted Hydrocele
young Children a Month or two old often have an Hydrocele so that
the Parents mistake it for an enlarged Testicle: it always goes away
of itself without doing any thing for it, if we puncture it comes
again, & at last goes off naturally, I thought has lately seen
one Case, where this Hydrocele has remained five or six years
in grown People it very seldom, indeed hardly ever goes away of
itself In an Old man, a bad Habit or where the Testicle is diseased
the Radical Cure is not to be attempted, All Surgeons are agreed
that Phlebotomy we will not employ the Tunica Vaginalis so that
the Water must be drawn off from time to time either by puncturing
with a lancet, or by using the Trocar - The Tumor should be pressed
on the sides for by so doing the Water is brought forward, and the
Testicle thrown backward, then we should plunge in a lancet at
the anterior part, if a lancet is used, a Probe should be introduced
directly afterwards, the wound only requires a bit of lint or sticking
Plaster, but the disease generally recurs again - The Vascular
The Case of a Separ Ginder who had a Hydrocele, & for whom he had let
out the Water three times with a lancet, He saw him some years aft-
erwards, & he then told him that he had had several returns of his
complaint, but that being unwilling to trouble him any more he had
always let the Water out himself with a sharp pointed Knife. What
became

Hydrocele

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became of him after this time the Doctor heard or knew. Hydrocele, will often cure itself. Soon stretching the Bag at some time or other inflammation comes on with Fever, suppuration, at last the Bag bursts, & when healed it adheres so as to leave behind it no Cavity. The same Process would take place in an Abscess, but there the inflammation infallibly kills the patient. It is with a young Man's Wife to go thro' the Operation for the Radical cure. The Radical Cure is brought on by Inflammation being produced to such a degree as to unite the Testicle & Tunica vaginalis together & obliterate the Cavity. Dr Hunter thinks that there is but little difference between the Seton, Caustic and Incision for the Radical Cure of the Hydrocele, but of the three, he would rather prefer the Caustic. The objection to the Seton is the great pain and Inflammation, but these are never known to kill. The Incision into the Tunica vaginalis has been known to fail. The Caustic never has, & is the most preferable Method of the three, and the Patient will more readily submit to it than to either; a little piece about the size of a silver penny or sixpence is to be applied to make an Eschar, and afterwards nothing but Poultices of stale Beer & Oatmeal are to be used.

Diseases of the Testicle

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Lecture 7th

The Varicocele is an enlargement of the spermatic vein and is often exceedingly painful, by pressing on the Vein, the swelling disappears, & when the pressure is removed it returns. It is confined to the Vein without the Abdominal Ring: there is no cure for it. It may be eased by suspending the Testicle in a Bag. Squir: The Greek Surgeons tied the Varicose Vein above & below with a Ligature, & then cut away the Varix. This method cannot be objected to if the Case is bad, for the Blood will be brought back from the Testicle by other Veins, & the Function of that gland will be no ways impaired. The Scrotocele or Swell'd Testicle happens from many Causes, & when it has continued a great while it is apt to degenerate into Scirrhus or perhaps Cancer. The venereal Swell'd Testicle is the most common disease of the part, & should always be suspended. It hardly ever degenerates into Cancer, & continues very hard a long time, but as Mercurials are taken it gradually disappears; the Scirrhus is continues hard the longest, if neglected it often Suppurates. The worst case of an indurated Testicle is that from a blow, or that which comes on gradually from no apparent cause, especially if it were indolent & without pain at first, for then we judge it to be a Scirrhus, which is liable to grow Cancerous when the Life of the Patient comes to be in danger from this Scirrhus tending to Cancer. we cauterize the Testicle. We have but a very imperfect Idea of a Cancer: By Cancer we mean in general a Vague Sense any Sort of Tumour with great pain, which has a tendency to destroy a Patient, especially if it be situated in a glandular part. It may be produced from a disease in a part, or is locally situated, as

a small

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a small hardness in a Woman's Breast left there after Inflammation has subsided, is in the Testicles. It produces a juice peculiar to itself which we may call Poison. Then the Disease will be local, & if we entirely cut away the part, before the Constitution be poisoned we save the Patient. There is another kind of Cancer which seems to be Constitutional, there is a disposition in the Habit to Cancer; here cutting off one diseased part will be no protection to the Patient, for the whole Constitution is poisoned, & the Poison will make its appearance in other parts. It is much to be lamented that we don't know how to distinguish these two cases: If it came from an external Cause that we are acquainted with, as a blow for instance, there is great reason to think that it is only local, if it came from an internal Cause we don't know, it is not advisable to cut off the part, for there is reason to imagine the Constitution is affected. If the Testicle is ever so much diseased, if the Cord is loose, & soft, it will be best to castrate, for then we presume that the Disease is local. If the Cord is also diseased, hard, and painfull, & when the Patient lies down, the Testicle is supported, there is pain running up to the Back, it will be to no purpose to castrate, for the Poison is probably diffused thro' the Constitution. Sometimes one part of the Testicle becomes Cancerous, Sometimes another. As the Castration is not a very dangerous Operation, & as one Testicle will answer all purposes, it will be better to take it out a little too soon than to wait, if it is already Scirrhous, for if the Cancerous poison should go into the Constitution, it will signify nothing our doing the Operation. The Operation of Castration is very simple; it is only dissecting out the Testicle, & cutting the Cord at a proper height. Some have proposed to take out the

The Testicle

Diseases of the Testicle

Testicle along with a piece of Skin of the fore part of the Scrotum, Others only, to take out the Testicle. If the Tumor is not very large, & the Skin is perfectly sound, there is no reason for taking away any part of the Skin; if the Tumor is large, & the Skin ~~is~~ diseased, & united with the Subjacent Testicle, it will be better to remove it, otherwise, as it would be more painful than one incision thro' the Skin, we should let it alone, & take only the Testicle. We should make a longitudinal incision the length of the Tumor from the ling downwards, then dissect backwards on each side of the Testicle, & then dissect it out from the Scrotum, which is an easy thing, & clear the whole from the neighbouring parts, to the upper part of the Chord. Some direct us to dissect out the Spermatie Chord first, then tie it & cut it off, & then dissect out the Testicle. But it is a good way to cut this last; Surgeons have differed with respect to the Treatment of the Chord; Some chuse to tie it with a Ligature, Others used two Ligatures, particularly the Old Surgeons, who were always afraid of Blood. Some put a Ligature around the whole Chord. Mr. Le. Doan took up an Idea, that all the bad Symptoms happening after this Operation were owing to tying the Vas Deferens, favouring the old notion of its being a Pars Nervosa. Therefore he directed us to separate the Vas Deferens, & tie the rest only. This however appears to be of no consequence, if any we should avoid the Nerve, which we cannot do for there are many Filaments. He directs us too, if we wish to avoid a Ligature, to bruise the Artery with one Thumb & finger, as if it should bleed some time after the Operation, then we may use a Ligature. The Artery does not appear to be of that consequence as to require tying, especially as we can make pressure upon it against the Os Pubis. We may cut the Chord without making a Ligature, & take such means afterwards as shall appear to be necessary. Mr. Sharp was fond of detaching & tying them

Diseases of the Testicle

wood them to unite the lips of the wound in the Scrotum, by the first intention, but as suppuration generally goes on, they will only lie in the way, it is best to leave them alone to suppurate as usual of themselves

Urinary Complaints

Strangury is owing to many causes: the most troubles some, and most common is the Stricture in the Urethra. There may be a Suppression of Urine when there is none in the Bladder; the disease is in the Kidney, so that no Urine is excreted, or there is a Stoppage in the Ureters: But the Retention of Urine in the Bladder is the subject of our present consideration. From whatever cause, the Urine is detained in the Bladder, so as to become alarming, the Warm Bath is of Service, & often makes the Patient pass Urine immediately; if this don't do, or if we cannot get at a Warm Bath we should endeavour to introduce a Bougie very gradually, when it has been in the Bladder a few Minutes, we should withdraw it, & at an instant a strong call for making Water comes on, the Urine will follow the Bougie, but very slowly, tho' if we cannot get a Bougie in, which will occasion less mischief than a Catheter, & therefore should be tried first, we should endeavour to get in a Catheter either stiff or flexible, impervious at the End, but with perforations at the sides of the End, the perforations should be small, & a number of them, for the edges of the large holes hurt the Urethra, when the Catheter comes out there are always Clots of Blood in the holes. If the Urine is bloody we may then use one with large holes. When Clots of Blood are left in the Bladder they become lifeless, by a kind of putrefaction, & are discharged thro' the Urethra from time to time. Any one not accustomed to the introduction of the Catheter had better use a flexible one, but to one practised in it, the stiff Catheter is best, for the direction of its point can be varied with certainty, if there is any

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is any diffidence, we should first use a Bougie, if that won't do, then the Catheter. We should keep the Curve of the Catheter to the Patient's body, from first to last, as we introduce it, & by keeping it in one direction the Urethra will be less liable to take any turn. If there is any difficulty of Introduction we must raise the end of the Catheter with the finger in Anus, and at the same time pulling out the Pinacum to make the passage as straight as possible. We must rather use continuance than force, in our endeavouring to get it into the Bladder. In Suppression we should make use of Sympies of the Anodyne kind, before we use the Catheter, for the irritation from this Instrument always increases the complaint in the Urethra, and after unsuccessful Attempts by the Catheter have been made, we should again have recourse to them, & always keep one in the Interstium. If every thing proves ineffectual, & the Life of the Patient is in danger, we must puncture the Bladder. Some have thrust a Sacot into it just over the Os pubis, which might easily be done now, that the Bladder is exceedingly distended, and they have directed the Canula to be left in, till the Urine has found its proper course. Mr. Sharp punctured the Bladder above the Os pubis & left in the Canula, but soon after the Patient complained of great uneasiness continually purged Waters, &c. & upon opening the body they found that the Canula had by degrees worked its way thro' the other side of the Bladder into the Peritonaeum, where it kept up a constant irritation, which was the Dream of his purging water as he died. Others have established the Sacot into the Bladder from the Pinacum. The modern Surgeons dislike the puncture above the Pubis, and do it at the Pinacum so as to wound the Bladder near its Orifice: as the Sacot

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Trocars rather stretches than cuts the depth of Flesh between the
Skin of the Perinaeum and the Bladder. Mr. Guil proposed making
an incision as we do in cutting for the Stone, tho' not so large, as
as almost to lay the Bladder bare, and then thrust in the Trocar, and
by this means he conceived that the Inflammation from the Canals
being left in would be less, because less Flesh would be stretched
This the Dr. Hunter is the most promising Method of any that
has been proposed. A Surgeon at Lyons has proposed to puncture
the Bladder from the Rectum with a curved Trocar, and
he says, that the small wound produced by the Instrument
in this part will not remain fistulous. But all wounds fr-
om the Bladder into the Rectum that Dr. Hunter has seen, whe-
ther small or great proved fistulous, and besides this there
will be very great danger of injuring the Circular Seminalis
and therefore he would by no means recommend this Operation,
whatever Method we would wish to use when the Complaint
arises from an Enlarged Prostate Gland, we are oblig'd to
do it above the Os Pubis and then alone, for the Enlarged
Gland often fills up the Pelvis, and thrusts the Bladder out
of it. In fistulouses of the Urethra we can do very little good
farther than the drawing off the Urine when it becomes trou-
blesome. Force is improper for we may easily make a sad
Rochardie Medicines are not to be used, we should use innocent
Bougies

Urinary Complaints

Bougies, go on gradually, dilating, if we once get into the Bladder we must proceed cautiously, & increase the size of the Bougies by degrees; & after we have made the passage pretty free, the Man must have recourse to a Bougie at times, perhaps for all his life: his life will thus be made comfortable, & a Relapse prevented, after the Bougie has passed the Stricture & lain in the Urethra for some time, when it is withdrawn, we generally see the Mark where the Stricture pressed upon the Fistula in Perinae commonly owes its Origin to an Obstruction of the Urethra from Stricture, therefore we should begin the Cure of the Complaint by first opening the Stricture; when the passage is opened, the Urine takes its old Course, & the Fistula closes up, When a Stone sticks in the Urinary passages there is an Effort raised by Nature, which pushes it on farther, When it has passed the Prostate Gland it gets into the Membranous part of the Urethra, and then into a wider part of the Canal, the Bulb; here it commonly sticks, the passage from hence growing smaller. If there is a probability of the Stone's passing we must encourage that disposition by the Warm Bath, and inject some Oil into the Urethra, and if it moves a little, it generally passes quite thro'. If it be within reach the Surgeon should loosen it with a Probe, or endeavour to draw it out with the Camula Foreceps. If these Methods do not succeed we must cut the Stone out of the Urethra, differently according to the different Circumstances. Some draw the thick side sideways before they cut upon the Stone, so that the external Wound may not correspond with the Wound in the Urethra, & thus prevent the Urine from running thro', & occasioning

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occasioning a *Fistula*. But this instead of being the ready means of preventing a *Fistula* is the ready means of creating one, for a little water getting thro' the internal wound not being able to escape by the external, will occasion inflammation & suppuration from its lodging in the cellular membrane, the consequence of which will be, a *Fistula*. The best way is to cut thro' all upon the Stone with the Skin in its natural Situation, then put a Catheter into the Urethra, make a couple of fine stitches thro' the Skin of the wound, and include a little of the Substance of the Urethra. If it be in that part of the Urethra, which is under the Scrotum, we must endeavour to get it farther backwards, or forward; if this can't be done, we must cut it out at the lateral part of the Scrotum. It will be better if possible to get it backward, & turn up the Scrotum so as to cut behind it to avoid as much as possible a depending drain in the Scrotum. When a Stone is in the Urethra at the Prostatic Gland, we must cut upon it as an extraneous body, we must introduce a Finger into the Rectum, pull the Stone forward & upward so as that it may project at the Perineum, & cut upon it as incutting upon the Gripe.

Empyema

Lecture 80

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The making an opening into the Cavity of the Chest to discharge any
Blood is called the Empyema. In France the Surgeons have
made use of a Trocar to perform the Operation for the Empyema,
but Dr Hunter says it is a very dangerous experiment. The safest
way is to make use of a common Trape dissecting knife, and we
should use this exceedingly cautiously, feeling as soon as we have
cut down to the Pleura whether we can discover a fluctuation or tum-
escence. To do this we should direct the Patient to cough keeping
the finger still against the Pleura. In letting the Matter run out
we should compress the ribs that no Air may be sucked in, and we
should make the Patient breathe only with one Lung, when we
have let out as much Matter as will be necessary at one time, we should
draw the Skin over the external Wound & direct the Patient to
make a deep inspiration & draw his ribs upwards; by this means
the external Skin will serve as a Flap, & prevent the Admission
of any Air. As soon as the Cells are a little more expanded by
Inspiration, we may then open the Wound & let out the remaining
Matter without any danger of the Patient's fainting, & lastly, we
should cover the whole with a piece of sticking plaster that
will adhere very strongly, keep the parts in that situation in which
they are placed, viz with the external Skin acting as a Flap to the
external Wound thro' the Pleura into the Cavity of the Thorax.
In doing the Operation for the Empyema we must make the Drain as
dependent as possible; we should rather make the opening on the side
of the body a little away above the Attachment of the Diaphragm either
between

Empyema

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between the 7th & 8th Rib, is between the 6th & 7th. The Incision that is made, must be parallel to the Ribs, rather nearer the lower than the upper Rib, to have a better chance of avoiding the intercostal artery, and having laid the Pleura bare, we can more certainly determine whether the Chest contains a fluid by the fluctuation. If it does, we may open the Pleura either with our nail scratching it, or with the point of a knife, keeping still nearer the lower Rib. If there is any fluid, it immediately rushes out; if there is a large quantity, we had better let it out at different times than at once, this will perhaps prevent a fatal fainting which Mr. Gill saw follow immediately upon the discharge of a large quantity, for the Lungs having been long pressed together cannot expand themselves readily upon the removal of the pressure, hence the Patient faints, or perhaps dies. Every time the Patient inspires we should close the Orifice to prevent air from getting into the Cavity of the Chest, for air might probably do the same mischief as the Fluid did. We should let the Fluid rush out in Expiration: A piece of sticking plaister laid on the Wound will serve the use of a Valve, the Fluid will be forced out in Expiration, but in Inspiration the plaister will be sucked up against the Wound & prevent the Air getting in. Generally the Patient dies after the Operation because the Wound cannot be healed by the first intention, internal inflammation & suppuration come on, which by diffusing themselves over the Chest destroy the Patient, tho' many People have talked of doing it with as much indifference as opening a common Abscess. It frequently happens that matter is contained in a kind of Cyat formed by Adhesion of the Lungs to the Pleura; I remember never saw it but once, in the

Empyema

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in the general cavity of the Chest, Pleurisy, & Suppuration generally go together, the inflammation is communicated from one part to the other, the matter formed seldom or never its way externally, but generally forces into the cavity of the Chest, & makes Empyema, or into the Trachea & occasions Reluctation of Pulmonary Consumption. Generally speaking, Inflammation & Suppuration is found to progress the upper back part of the Lungs under the Shoulder blades more than any other part is a Characteristic mark of the matter coming from the cavity of the Thorax is a Tumor which appears Externally, & the Rib is a protrusion of it on coughing, as in this case we ought to open the Tumor & let the matter out immediately. When Nature does not point out the matter in this way, the Dr. thinks that the Operation should not be performed, for in the first place, we don't always know when there is matter, & secondly if there is matter, we don't know exactly to what part it is confined, & moreover the Patient generally dies.

The most common fluid discharged by this Operation is matter, another frequent kind is water. A Patient affected with Hydrope Pectoris commonly wakes hurried & frightened from his first sleep; his Viscera are unwarmed, & the Operation will do nothing more than ease him of his present load, the water will collect again if he lives long enough; we must always be uncertain of the existence or nonexistence of a Collection of fluid in the cavity of the Thorax, therefore we should never use a Terebra. Another kind of fluid (but seldom met with however) is blood, for when so much blood is shed into the Chest as to cause difficulty of Respiration, there is such mischief done internally, as to kill, & the Surgeons of the Army, & Navy say, that these cases always end in Death. It has been recommended at Edinburgh to do this operation for the discharge

Empyema

The discharge of Air as will seldom be confined in the Chest of a Person that can live, for it generally gets in from a wound of the Lungs, which is almost certainly fatal, & besides it happens commonly from a Scurd or Ball, so that there will already be an external opening, when a Rib is broken, a Spicula of Bone might wound the Lungs, thus Air get into the Cavity of the Chest, but here the Air gets into the Cellular Membrane likewise by the Wound thro' the Pleura, & is diffused over the whole body, & if we let it out from the Cellular Membrane we let it out from the Chest at the same time. The only case where it can get into the Chest alone, is when a Spicula has wounded the Lungs, which being replaced, & the Pleura being but little wounded, acts as a Valve before the opening into the Cellular Membrane, when only one lobe of the Lung is diseased, the Patient commonly lays easiest on that side, because the Side is in a Manner useless, while the other has more room to perform its Functions.

Amputation of the Breast

The Breasts of women often inflame, & suppurate kindly after Childbirth; it is a general rule in such Cases to apply Poultices, and let them break of themselves, if in two places or in twenty it is the same thing, we should do nothing else, only keep the Breast upon a few Paulties applied for the sake of Cleanesse, & let them heal their own way, which they will do tho' much hardness remains, & the glandular part of the Breast will often feel very hard in comparison to the other parts of the Breast, so that we should not always conclude hardnesses here to be of the Scirrhus kind. Tumors however proceeded from blows, and Scirrhus hardnesses coming of themselves are extremely dangerous, & ought to be particularly attended to, in these Cases should be removed.

Amputation of the Breast

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removed early, especially if they come on in the manner we mentioned last time of themselves. There is no doubt but there are sometimes hard masses in the Breast, which even men of great Experience have supposed to be extremely alarming, & if it have been cured by some old woman or other in the Country, from only the use of Emollient Compositions, so that we should never be too positive in our Prognostics and not neglect the attendance of what at first sight may appear to be incurable. If we open the Abscesses, tent them so we shall only make bad worse. A woman, who has had a Milk-Lore once is not the more liable to have it again on that account, I think, never knows of a Milk-Lore terminating in a Cancer, he says, they always do well, as we don't know what a Cancer is, we cannot properly define it, The Progress of one on the Breast is generally as follows, first the nipple is drawn inward & stuck up, then a hardness may be felt around it, the skin is puckered in, and fast to the Pits, all the Flesh is hardened & contracted, whether it ulcerates and bleeds, or not, it is called a Cancer, so that we shall call that a Cancer which goes on to destroy the Patient, whenever the Malady appears to be local, there are great hopes from Extirpation. If the Malady is general, I will be only tending the Patient, and bringing a Discharge on Surgery to take off the Breast; if it is fixed to the Pits we cannot take it off and if the Glands of the Axilla are affected, it is impossible to cure it, unless we can take them, and also, therefore if they can be extirpated without danger, they

always.

Amputation of the Breast

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always, & should. The Poison being absorbed from a Cancerous Ulcer the Lymphatic Glands thro' which they pass will likewise be inflamed, and the red marks go on into them, and in this case taking away the Breast will be attended with no Advantage, as a tainted part will be still remaining. As much Skin as safely can must be preserved, it should therefore be begun above, & carried downwards. What Bleeding there is, comes in the direction from the Axilla which may be stopped by Ligatures, there is some bleeding also from the Mamillary branches, but these generally require no particular Attention. After the Breast is removed, the Surgeon examines whether any diseased part remains behind, & if there does he cuts it out; which is generally toward the Arm. But we are directed to make an incision in the Skin, & dig them out, but this is hardly advisable. The Operation should be performed easily & largely in the direction of the Lymphatic Vessels, & no other instrument than a common dissecting Knife will be necessary. The Breast should be amputated before we take out any diseased Gland in the Axilla, for the Skin being cut up a little toward, the Axilla will enable us to remove the Glands with much more ease. The Arm should be drawn in, as near the body as the Operation will admit of.

Embalming

Lecture 81

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We generally have 3 Boxes, one for the Viscera, one for the Brain, & one for the Heart besides the Coffin for the body. The Bowells should be taken out, & clean washed in several Waters, Wash all the internal Surfaces of the Body dry all with sponge & Cloth, then wash the whole after the Blood has been washed out with Camphorated Spirit of Wine, There are two Powders usually employ'd, a coarse one of sweet smelling Herbs, & a fine one of Cloves, Nutmegs, & other Spices. The Viscera are to be put into a Bag, which is to be fill'd up with one of the powders, then a bottle or two of Camphorated Spirit of Wine is to be pour'd into them, & they should then be solder'd up. In doing the Heart, the Ventricles & Arteries should be fill'd with Powder, & it should be set with the apex downwards. The Skull must be fill'd with Powder, & some must be strew'd between the Scalp & the Cranium. The Abdomen, Throat, & other Cavities must be fill'd with it, all must be well wet with the Spirit, & then be sew'd up. The Body must be wrapped in a Sarc Cloth made of a Sheet dipped in a Milted Composition of any colour, the best thing will be an Oiled Cloth, or Oiled Silk but proper for the purpose; a little of the fine powder may be sprinkled over the body before it is wrapped up, the whole is to be pack'd up with any Stuffed Tape, we please, beginning at the head, going downwards. As much of the mould of the Limbs as possible should be preserved off carefully, with to preserve the body, as soon as we can decently, we should open the Inguinal Art. or that in the Arms, inject the Vessels of the body quite full of Camphorated Spt of Wine. Next wash all the parts very gently, & dry them with sponge & Cloth; & inject the Arteries of the Arms & legs from their Trunks with the Spirit. Use powdered Rosin, instead of the other Powder, & pour thereon plenty of Spt of Turpentine, the Rosin will be dissolved by the spirit, which evaporating by degrees will leave the whole cemented together, then as before directed; thus we may preserve the body some time.

Lithotomy

Lecture 82^d

Celsus, & therefore probably the Greek Surgeons recommended this operation in Boys of adult Age only. Celsus describes the Operation thus: a Finger or two are to be introduced into the Rectum to draw the Stone towards the Perinaeum & make it project there, & then cut it out as one would a Ball. The precise manner in which the Incision was made, is not known; but Paullus Aeginetta directs us to cut upon the Stone a little to the left of the Osphre, & till 180 years ago this method was universally practised; the Knife & the hand were all that was necessary. It was called cutting on the Quip, probably because the Stone is first gripped & then cut upon, it cannot be done upon a Bed: It is very & a young People. The greatest objection to this method is that we can't cut with certainty, & we know that after this Operation the Patients were generally impotential, the Seminal Vents being cut thro'. Besides the Coat of the Bladder must be rent by the Quip, especially if the Stone were a rough one. Iohannes de Romanis was the Inventor of the greater apparatus: His Scholar Maximus Sandius published it in 1624. Iohannes introduced a grooved Staff into the Bladder, made it project at the Perinaeum, & cut upon the Groove in the Bulbar part of the Urethra, then he introduced the Male Conductor into the Bladder by means of a Probe that slept along the Groove, withdrew the Staff & introduced the Female Conductor, between the Conductors after he had stretched the Urethra by opening them, he passed the Forceps into the Bladder, withdrew the Conductors & extracted the Stone, so that he stretched & tore the Membranous part of the Urethra, which was the cause of great Mischiefs. Peter Franco, Provincial Surgeon, &

Lithotomist

Lithotomy

Lithotomist published a Book on Hernia about the middle of the 16th Century. In this Book he tells us, that having cut a Boy for the Stone, he found the Stone too large for Extraction at the Peritonaeum, then chancing to lay his hand on the Pubis he felt the Stone, he immediately cut above the Pubis into the Bladder, & took out a very large Stone; this case proved successful, but we don't find that he was practised & afterwards, after this Prostetius Funchman published a Book upon the Cæsarian Operation, & therein he recommends the High Operation for the Stone (as this Method of Incaevius is called) but it gained no Reputation in Europe till Mr John Douglass, Brother of Dr Douglass the Londoner, first practised it with some improvement, which was as follows; He to avoid more certainly a penetrating Wound into the Abdomen by wounding the Peritonaeum, injected an innocent fluid, such as Barley Water into the Bladder to distend it, & make it rise up above the Os Pubis considerably, he then cut longitudinally thro' the fore-mentioned down to the true Bladder so as to lay it bare, then plunging in a small knife with the back turned towards the Os Pubis he slit the Bladder upwards, thrust in his finger to keep open a passage for the Forceps, which he introduced & extracted the Stone. The objection to this was, that the Bladder could not be raised always sufficiently to enable the Surgeon to cut clear into it without wounding the Peritonaeum & therefore the Patient generally died; It happened every now & then that the Peritonaeum was wounded so that the Bowels came out & another objection was, that there was not a depending drain for gravel or small pieces of Stone that might be broken off by the Forceps, & for matter; another objection & a very material one was that the Stone insinuated itself into the Cellular Membrane above the Os Pubis, & occasioned Internal Suppuration & Fistula. This method

Lithotomy

Method was found very inconvenient, & is now laid aside, but Thompson observes that it cannot be practised on grown People, but may in very young Creatures, for the Fundus of the Bladder in a Infant is as high as the upper end of the Urethrum, & gradually falls lower & lower as we grow up. There Jacques a Monk came to Paris, & there published the lateral Method, & performed several operations, & had an Order from the King of France, that his Physician & Apothecary should attend his operation, & examine the bodies afterwards, & report to him what parts were cut in the operation & how far he had a right to encourage him. The report these People made to the King was not a very favourable one, they said the operation was a very random one, but that it might be much improved. He used a Staff at first without a Groove, plunging a long knife, between thro' the Urethrum, the Ureter, & the Tuberosity of the Prostate into the body of the Bladder, till he met with the Staff, and then cut upwards towards the Urethrum. Some of his Patients lived & some died, but it was found that he cut so much in the Ducts and so differently, that his Operation was not alike in any two Cases, he often thrust the knife thro' & thro' the Bladder. Mr Cheselden first used the lateral Method in England, after that Professor Ran had used it with great reputation in Holland. Mr Cheselden making the Staff to project on the left side of the Urethrum, midway between the Tuberosity of the Prostate & the Vexge of the Ureter, cut into the Groove, then turning the edge of the knife upwards, he felt for the Staff in the Body of the Bladder already nearly laid bare by the first Incision, cut upon it by keeping the

Rectum,

Lithotomy

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Return aside with his fingers & continued the incision thro' the Prostrate Gland to the first incision in the Bulb of the Urethra & introduced a Gorgit to conduct the Forceps into the Bladder. This is the Account he gave of his operation. But he did not cut so far back into the Bladder as was generally imagined; he might cut a little of it, but the greatest part of the passage was torn thro', & he often wounded the Rectum. Another Surgeon proposed to turn the back of the knife into the groove of the Staff after the first incision & thus push it on into the Bladder; but by perverting in this way the Rectum almost always was wounded, so that if the Patient recovered a Fistula remained; and another Accident which happened to him & Mr. Chevalier was this, the cutting thro' the Seminal Ducts which had the same Effect as Castration. Mr. Le Dran proposed an Instrument to be thrust along the groove of the Staff into the Bladder; which cuts the Prostrate Gland sideways & divides the Seminal Ducts. This is a good Instrument, but Mr. Hawkins's cutting Gorgit is better, because it makes one Instrument less necessary, & the incision made by it is much the same as the other, for after Mr. Le Dran's Instrument had cut, a conducting Gorgit must be used to conduct the Forceps into the Bladder. Now Mr. Hawkins's cutting Gorgit is a sufficient Conductor. The Forceps are always made fast to which quite above, when they are slipped into the Bladder upon the Gorgit, the Gorgit is taken out, the Operator then opens the Forceps to grasp the stone. Now it sometimes happens, when a Surgeon can feel the Stone very distinctly, that he can't catch hold of it; in this case it is owing generally to the Forceps being introduced too far & therefore we should withdraw it a little, & endeavour to lay hold of it with the extremity of the Instrument; in this way we shall

very frequently

Lithotomy

very frequently succeed, as the extraction of a large stone must inevitably be attended with more or less laceration of the parts, we should use the more violence than in absolutely necessary, but pull gradually, drawing it from side to side, from the fore part to the back part until we have got it away, a small Gravel remaining should be taken away by the Scurp which has a groove in it the better to introduce the Scurps to take away any thing that may be left, the other end will frequently serve, when the finger is not long enough. In our present lateral method we use Mr Hawkins's Gorgit which cuts on the left side, because the left side of the Perineum is generally looser. It should not be pushed too far into the Bladder, least the Beak should go thro' the opposite side of it. When we operate in a Woman, the Labia are thrown aside, & a grooved Director introduced into the Bladder, then introduce a small Gorgit by means of the groove, withdraw the Director & introduce a larger Gorgit upon the first, open the Gorgits to dilate the Uthra & pass the Forceps between them into the Bladder, take away the Gorgits & extract the Stone, but in this way we always lacerate the Uthra, which occasions incontinence of Urine, & perhaps a fistula opening into the Vagina; it is better therefore to cut the Uthra. Mr Hawkins does this with his Cutting Gorgit introduced by a Female Grooved Staff, & as I slide & draw, say it does not make any communication with the Vagina; the wound being a Cut, ends well or at least much better than a laceration. One way thing is commonly as well as before, when the Bladder contracts it is possible that it may lie upon the edge of the Cutting Gorgit & be wounded thereby, this being kept in the Bladder all the while the Forceps are introducing. Dr Hunter advises therefore to withdraw the Gorgit as soon as it has cut into the Bladder.

Amputation of the Penis

Lecture 83

In performing this operation we should endeavour to preserve as much sound Skin as possible. Before we operate, the Skin should be drawn rather backwards, than as much of the Penis may be dissected off as is diseased. Some advise tying the Suture after the operation, but I think thinks a sufficient pressure may be made on it to prevent an hæmorrhage, & a piece of Bougie should be kept in the Urethra to keep it from closing up with the Cicatrix. It is recommended the Penis to be tied quite round with a Ligature, & leaving the lower part to slough off, but this is much worse than cutting it off, because the pain will last much longer. We should be very cautious of operating on elderly People of Scurvitic Habits, especially if they are hard Drinkers.

Fistula in Ano

Abscesses near the anus do not heal up so readily, as those Abscesses after they break, but in general become Fistulæ, & all Fistulæ always implies a Sou of long standing with an hard contracted Orifice, when the Cavity of the Abscess is put in communication it is called a complicated Fistula, if there is also an opening externally. In this case the Faces are principally discharged thro' the Anus, but some always pass also thro' the external Opening in the Perineum. To enlarge this opening will not be sufficient to cure the Fistula, for it will remain not with standing, but the Cavity of the Abscess must be laid into one with the Cavity of the Gut by an Incision. To make this Incision it has been recommended to introduce a flexible grooved Rod thro' the external Opening & push the end of it thro' just above the hole in the Intestine ^{there is an} into the Perineum, then bring the end out at the anus with the finger.

Fistula in Ano

the finger, & cut all upon the groove. The modern method is to use a narrow probe pointed Bistoury only, introduced in the same manner as the Grooved Probe, pushing the point thro' into the cavity of the Gut & drawn out with the finger behind the end in Rectum, so as to divide all the parts above. Dividing the Sphincter Ani is of no consequence as it will heal kindly, & perform its Office as before. Mr. Le Dran used to cut out a piece of the Fistula partly from the Buttock & partly from the Gut. Mr. Pott argues against this practice very strongly, but it appears that the larger the Opening has been the more certain has been the Cure. There is great difficulty to get the probe point of the Bistoury thro' the Rectum & therefore it does not make so good an Operation as the common knife with the flexible Grooved Probe. A more complicated Fistula or what has been called a Blind One, is that which has only one Opening, & this is of two kinds, one which has only an internal Opening, & the other only an external one. In cases of Abscesses about the Anus, the Dr. thinks it is best, to open them early & largely; early because the matter will otherwise be daily increasing, destroying the adjacent parts & rendering them hard & callous. and largely because there will then be less danger of their becoming fistulous.

Bronchotomy

This is done to prevent Suffocation, therefore we suppose the suppositious cause to exist above the Aperture we intend to make into the Trachea. This is always a troublesome one & oftentimes a disgracefull Operation, for long-necked People there is sufficient room, but in short-necked the Trachea lies very low down towards the Breastbone. We have the Thyroid Gland to cut thro' which is a very vascular part, & will furnish a copious haemorrhage. In doing the Operation we first lay bare the Trachea.

Bronchotomy

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Trachea, between the lower end of the Glottid Cartilage & the Sternum, then make a transverse opening between two of the Ridges, & keep a double Canula in it (which should be directed downwards) till the disease that prevents Respiration is removed, continuing to employ in the mean while the common Remedies necessary for the Cure of that disease. A Double Canula is used for the convenience of cleaning the Instrument from time to time. It will at best be a troublesome Operation for the Patient will suck in the Blood in Inspiration, which will set him coughing, & what is coughed up can't easily get thro' the artificial opening, & perhaps may suffocate him - when all danger of Suffocation is removed the wound is to be healed up, when a Person cuts his throat, the manner I lead & should be bent down to the neck, to bring the edges of the wound together so as to unite, for Sitches occasion an uneasy Cough from the Irritation which they produce.

Wry Neck

The D^r has seen only three Cases, in which there was a prospect of the operations succeeding, & only two in which the Operation had been performed in both of which it turned out very successful.

If the Wry Neck is arising to the rigidity & contraction of the Sternomastoid. & other Muscles, & to nothing else, then cutting that Muscle will set the Neck to rights. The safest place to do it & is to cut the Muscle third just above the Clavicle & here the Scar will be less disagreeable, we should do it very cautiously, & when it is done we should keep the head in the natural position, or even rather tending to the wry side, when a Wry Neck has been of long standing, the bones often take the Curve in which Case the Operation can be of no service.

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Extirpation of the Tonsils & Uvula,

Lecture 85th

The Tonsils & Uvula being flesh are sometimes much swollen from Cold, & often one or both Tonsils tend to suppurate, but these Cases are never dangerous, because before the Tonsils are so much swollen as to endanger Suffocation, a Pusset may be thrust into them, which will discharge the Matter if any is formed, & if not the Bleeding will lessen their size. When the Tonsils are enlarged they occasion a disagreeable thickening of Speech, & labouring Respiration, & the Patient commonly sleeps with his mouth open. We know of no process that will reduce these Glands to their former size, & as they never become Cancerous they should be extirpated. The Tonsil must be drawn out with a hook double with both prongs pretty broad that they may not tear out their hold from into it, & cut off with the Tonsil Scissors, or we may cut it off with a small knife beginning below from the Tongue & cutting upwards, for if we cut from above downwards, the Blood will ~~obscure~~ ^{obscure} everything, that we shall not be able to bring the knife out below, & avoid the Tongue. If we make use of a knife I should be a very nervous One. Mr John Hunter makes use of a pair of long straight Scissors in preference to a pair of Tonsil scissors, he lately extirpated one of the Tonsils of a Foreigner in this manner with Success. Another Way is to tie a Ligature very tight round the Basis of the Tonsil, or if that Basis is not narrow enough, to run a double Ligature thro' its middle, & tie the corresponding threads One on each side, in both cases the Circulation being intercepted wholly, the Tonsil will slough Off. The Mouth should be kept open by placing a bit of stick, covered with Rag in the Corner of the Mouth. Some have objected to the Excision of the Tonsils on account of the haemorrhage, but Mr Hunter says it never proves dangerous. Another method is to

burn

Extirpation of the Tonsils & Uvula

to remove the Tonsils & get rid of it by Suppuration; this will do when we cannot persuade a Patient to submit to the other Method & may easily be done by a pair of Forceps. When the Uvula is enlarged & hangs down the Throat, it occasions difficulty of Breathing, uneasiness & Cough, which can be remedied by Extirpation only, so much as is above the Natural length should be cut off. Some have recommended a Ligature to be tied round it very tight, & make it slough off, thus to destroy it with Caustic, but these Methods are hardly practicable, in a Throat too little a pair of long Polypus Forceps to take hold of the Tonsil Scissors to cut it off in all that we want. Mr Keen's Instrument does not do so well, it is apt to leave a small part undivided & another disagreeable circumstance, is that the part which is cut off will frequently fall down the Throat & be swallowed, I therefore never saw but two Cases that required the Operation, no great Haemorrhage need be feared.

Tongue tied

It is a vulgar Error that Children are commonly born Tongue tied, it is a case which happens very seldom: I never suppose that the Clucking of some Children is a Sign of their being Tongue tied. The L. says that he don't know that ever he saw three Tongue tied Children in his Life. I never am continually supposing they are, especially if they do not take the Bread & suck kindly. If the Tongue can be brought over the Gums or Lips we may be assured that the Child is not Tongue tied; when the Tongue is tied the Tracheum may be united with a pair of Scissors, it should be done cautiously, a skin cut under the Tongue may be of bad consequence from the Child's continually sucking it.

The Hare Lip

Children are often born with many Deformities, which we cannot account for, among these the Hare Lip is very common, & often there is a fissure in the upper part of the Mouth, which running backward divides the Uvula.

The Hare Lip

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Would, when we are called to a young Child, have told that the Food comes
thru the Nose, we shall always find a Separated Palate tho there be no Hare Lip.
There are several kinds of this kind disease; a simple fissure of the
upper Lip alone, a double fissure with a small eminence or nipple between
the two; the generality of them are curable by the Operation, but in some
Instances the division is very large, & here we cannot undertake to attempt
the Operation. A Separated Palate is incurable, & the Voice is always affected
as the Child grows up; when it is accompanied with a Hare Lip then the
External Deformity may be cured, tho the other cannot. I Huntet never
heard of a Child being born with a Fissure in the Underside of the Case is
favorable, the Operation should be performed as soon as possible after the
Child is born, because the first days the Child takes but little Nourishment
& in the mean time the Wound is cured. In all the cases where the O has
performed is, Operation soon after birth it has always succeeded; he advises it
to be done two or three hours after birth. The Surgeon begins the Opera-
tion by turning the Separated Lip up, and depending it flat
from the Lip to make room for the angle of the two divisions;
then he cuts off the Callous Edges of the Fissure with a pair of
Scissors at two Cuts; if there are two fissures the same is to be repeated,
but if the middle part don't come so low down as the rest,
after it is cut it must be united with the middle upper part of the
lower
two Edges brought together, so as to make One Scar. The two wound
Edges must be brought together to unite by the first intention
and this should be done while they are bleeding; the Union is to be
accomplished by two Pins and to make them the corner the lower pin
must be put in first, then the thread must be wound around them
sufficiently tight in the form of a figure of 8 beginning the first
turn

The Hare Lip

turn round the lowermost pin, to make the edges only just touch each other. Some keep the needles in eight hours only, others two or three Days. The next day however they may be taken out in general, but this must be regulated according as we see that the Union goes on for which reason we must examine the wound and either slacken or tighten the threads as we see occasion. Mr John Hunter recommends the common interrupted Suture in preference to the technical suture with Pins. If the Lip be divided accidentally, the edges should be brought together immediately. As we see it even in the state of Suppuration, so also should a fissure of the Ala Nasi & Eye Lid, &c. for the Wounds will soon heal, but not unite one edge with the other, and an unsightly Fissure will remain, which will always prove the case when the Cheek is divided if care is not taken, probably owing to the parts being so thin that the jointingments shoot thro. A man had the Eye Lid of one Eye fissured by an Hanger without hurting the Cornea, the Wound healed up, and left a fissure in each, he had constant Headach from the continual Admission of Light upon the Eye, for it was uncovered unless he bound it up. The edges of the fissures were made fresh by snipping off the Cicatrices with Scissors, & brought into Contact by the interrupted Suture, so that he was cured, as we cure a Hare Lip. Mr John Hunter recommends the interrupted Suture, in the Hare Lip, and says they are better than leaving the needles in the Lip. When the needles are used the points should be cut off after they are put in. They should be made of Silver pointed with Steel. Tumors on the Lips that we suppose may become Cancerous.

The Hare Lip

Cancerous should be cut in the same manner as we cut the edges of a fissure, that is we must make an Angular Wound which must be treated as a Hare Lip. A wound dividing the lower Lip should be taken care of particularly, because if it heals & leaves a fissure, the Saliva will continually dribble out of the mouth.

Polypus

Polypus are of different consistencies, from a cellular Membrane filled with soft firm Substances, & Tumors proper the Septum Nasicum asides as it increases so as to shut up both nostrils. It must be pulled out either by the Polypus Snare by the nose, or by the mouth, according as it presents. If we are to pull it out by the nose, just before we close the Forceps, we should desire the Patient to blow his nose, to bring the Tumor into the Blades. If we are to extract it by the mouth, we must desire him to draw the Air thro' the nostril for the same purpose, as hard as much as he can. It has been recommended to tie the root of the Polypus, & let it slough off, but this is hardly to be done. Polypus are sometimes of a Cancerous Nature: we hardly know from what particular part of the nose Polypus generally proceed. They have been but seldom examined Anatomically after Death. The D^r had once the opportunity of seeing the inside of a nose with a Polypus but once after Death, & that was in the case of a Cancerous Polypus. In this the parts were so much destroyed, the bones rendered so very Carious, that it was impossible to determine from whence it arose.

Fistula Lacrymalis

Lecture. 85th

The Tears & Mucus being accumulated in the Saccus Lacrymalis occasions a Swelling externally, which do what we will generally break thro' the Skin, & makes an Ulcer that will not heal. The Ancients knew nothing of the true nature of this disease, they thought that the bone was unsound, which prevented the healing of the Ulcer. The Moderns find that it is owing to an Obstruction in the Ductus ad Nasum, & that Opening this Duct, or making a new one will cure the disease. It often happens in Scrophulous Tons, & we cannot get a free passage into the Nose, for as soon as we make one it will close up again. In this Case, the Habit should be first corrected of Scrophula by Bathing, Bark & before any Attempt is made to open the passage. To open the passage we must open the Sac. Some have directed the Eye to be covered up with bits of sticking plaster for some Time before the Operation to confine the Tears & make the Sac turgid that it may be the more easily opened, but as we are to feel for the bony ridge, it is best to open it when empty. We must avoid cutting the Tendon of the Orbicularis Palpebrarum & cut below it, by drawing the Eye & Lid outwards the Tendon will rise up conspicuous. We must feel for the ridge of the Bone at the brim of the orbit, & within that cut downwards to the bone to open the Sac, then pass a Probe down the Duct into the Nose to clear it, & fill the wound up with Lint to dilate it, Next day we must take out the Lint, pass a bit of Bougie down the Duct, & keep it in day & night. By using the Bougie for several Days, & increasing the size now & then the passage may become sufficient, by opening, then we leave off the Bougie & heal the external wound, but the Duct is sometimes so much obstructed, that we cannot pass any thing down it, in this case we must perforate the bone with a Gun for a new passage into the Nose.

Fistula Lachrymalis

the nose, the best instrument to do this with is the Instrator of a straight Trocar, the point should be carried to the lower part of the Sac, rather the posterior part too, & pushing it thro' the bone, the point must be directed inward, & downwards nearly in a direction towards the Patient's Nostril, as Mr Le Dian observes. We must gently turn the instrument about, else we shall pierce the bone precipitately, & wound the other part in the nose, for the os Unguis is as thin as a bit of Paper, a piece of Bougie must be kept in this opening to make the sides callous, so that a perfect passage may be formed, when it is formed, we must leave off the Bougie, & heal up the external wound. Some have talked of syringing the Puncta Lachrymalia, which is trifling & useless. Others have recommended us to get a pipe bent at the end into the lower part of the Ductus ad Nasum from the nose, & thus syringe it, and the Sac, but this appears almost impracticable.

Cataract

The Ancients thought this to be an Opake Film before the Crystalline Humour, which they could press down from the Humour to the bottom of the Eye; but the Moderns have demonstrated it to be an Opacity of the Crystalline Humour itself. They used a Needle to depress the Cataract & so do now. The Opaque Crystalline is generally harder than the Sound one, sometimes it is opaque & very fluid, indeed, much more so than Indurably. This Opaque Humour hinders the Rays of Light from passing thro' it to the bottom of the Eye, & therefore destroys Vision. This defect is to be remedied by the operation of Couching, which is of two kinds, Extraction & Depression of the Opaque Humour. If the Eye is otherwise affected than with a Cataract, if there is a Gutta Serena as well as a Cataract, the optic nerve is unsound as to be incapable of perceiving Light from Darkness, if the Iris don't contract, & dilate, & is adherent to the Crystalline.

Cataract

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CrySTALLINE Humour, in these Cases the Patient must not be deceived, for after the Cataract is removed, the other Malady will remain & occasion defect in vision, we should therefore examine into every Circumstance before we determine upon the Operation - If one Eye is good, we should never meddle with the Cataractous Eye, for it may be hurt by means of Sympathy from the irritation produced by the Operation on the other, & after Curing it is a doubt, whether vision will be bettered. If both Eyes are Cataractous, then one at least be cured even tho' the Case be not very favourable, A Cataract may be distinguished from an Opacity of the Cornea by looking at the diseased Eye sideways - The Terms Pupils, & Iris, Cataract are now in disuse; there being no gradual change in the CrySTALLINE Humour, we judge of the fitness of the Operation, ceteris paribus, by the Obscurity of the Eye - we should expose the Eye to a bright Light then move such and before it, & if the Patient is not sensible of the different degree of light caused by it, the operation is not to be recommended. To know if the Iris adheres to the Diseased CrySTALLINE Humour we must press the Eye which opens the Pupil, then opening the Eyelids if we cannot see the Iris contract, it is a sign that it adheres to the CrySTALLINE Humour. The Patient should be prepared for the Operation by an Antiphlogistic Regimen to guard against internal inflammation of the Eye, which might undo every thing spoken. The Eyelids should be kept open by the fingers of the Surgeon or of an assistant, for the Speculum by pressing on the Eye Ball as well as keeping the Lids asunder has been known to press out all the Humour, We can depress the diseased body, the Needle should be thrust into the Eye a little way behind the Ciliary Processes, so that we shall go thro' a little of the Vitreous Humour, but by so doing we shall move

certainly

Cataract

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certainly avoid the Iris, than if we thrust it in a little before the Ciliary Process, a flat pointed needle will not be so apt to pass thro' the Crystalline, without carrying it down as one that is not flattened. It must be thrust in with the flat Surface backwards, & forwards, & when we see it is got into the Crystalline, we must turn it up as B, & down as C, D, E. We must gently shake the Crystalline, & thus endeavour to carry it down to the bottom of the Vitreous Humour; if it should break, we must catch hold of it again, & thus depress every piece of it, if it should rise up again we must press it down again till it remains where we would have it; then we must turn the needle, & draw it out as we introduced it, least we pull up the Crystalline again. If we extract, we should make a wound in the Cornea just before the Iris. It must be sufficient to let the Crystalline thro', which will be to cut it nearly half thro', the Knife should be thrust in at one side & out at the other, & then moved carefully to & fro till it cuts its way out; we must just scratch the Capsula, with the point of the knife, & then the Humour will be easily pressed out of its Capsula, which remains fixed to the Vitreous Humour, without pressing out any part of the Vitreous Humour; for if we endeavour to press out the Crystalline without having first punctured the Capsula, it is ten to one, but that the force necessary to do this presses the Vitreous Humour out also along with the Crystalline enclosed in its Capsula, that is to laceration, & whether we puncture the Capsula first, or do not, it never comes out along with the Crystalline, but remains in the Eye upon the Vitreous Humour; so that it is best to puncture it; we must be careful in making the Incision, that we don't injure the Iris with the slightest touch of the Instrument. Whether Extraction or Depression is the most preferable Method has not as yet been determined.

Expanning

On Trepanning

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Trepanning is cutting a circular piece of bone from the Skull to relieve an oppressed Brain. In young Bones a blow on the head often bends that part of the Skull, & if moderate their elasticity raises them again. In Indurify you may observe this take frequently, the Cave. The Bones bend & rise again like the sides of a Tin Cannister. Oftentimes when the depression is very considerable, the Brain seems not in the least affected & the bone rises again, but if Symptoms of an oppressed Brain come on, the Trepan should be applied. Contusion sometimes makes a such a change in the Bone as to bring on an inflammation of the Bone itself, which often spreads to the Dura Mater & Brain. A Fracture when in a straight line is called a Fissure, when part of the bone is beat inwards, a Fracture with Depression. We say there is a Concussion of the Brain, when all the common Symptoms of a Fracture are present, and yet there is no fracture. On Dissection we sometimes find a great Extravasation of Blood, & sometimes no manifest changes. We then say that the finer & imperceptible parts of the Brain were so disturbed as to destroy the Patient. Bleeding from the Ears, Nose, Eyes, but particularly from the Ears are common Symptoms of a Fracture. Vomiting is also a common Attendant on an oppressed Brain from the remarkable Sympathy between the Stomach & Brain. A Contra-fracture sometimes happens, tho' but very seldom. A Depression of the Skull that affects the Brain, Contusion of the Skull communicating its Effects inwards, Extravasation of Blood under the Skull, & Inflammation & Suppuration of the Dura Mater require the operation of the Trepan, whether there be always a Fracture or not. We must excise as little as possible, but we should always trace a Fracture its full length by a simple Incision, tho' it should run zigzag over the greatest part of the Skull; this should be done as soon as possible after the injury is received, because the Patient will not bear the cutting so well after he has recovered.

Trepanning

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recovered his senses, when the Cranium is small, the Symptoms mild
Surgeons flatter themselves that nothing is necessary to be done; but Pa-
tients seldom recover unless the Operation is performed. We generally
use the Trephine since Woodalls time, who was its inventor, he called
it so from its having three ends (Three fines). The Saw should be
Cylindrical or nearly so, because a Conical Saw must cut with the
sides, which no Workman can make a Saw do well. It should
be notched up the Sides to let the dust work out of the Groove of the
bone. The Edge should not be thin, for that will prevent our working
easily. A Surgeon should never use much force with the Elevator to
raise a depressed piece of Bone, but rather make several perforations
to loosen it first, for if we use much force upon the Elevator, we may
occasion a fresh Fracture. If any Fluid is contained under the
Dura Mater, we must cautiously puncture it with a Lancet.
Cutting thro' the Dura Mater is always dangerous. When the Skull
has been perforated, the Dura Mater often throws up a troublesome
Fungus thro' the Opening. This may be restrained by a Sonden made
of a smooth plate of Lead or any harmless Metal to the form of the
opening in the Bone, with perforations in it to let the Matter pass
readily thro'.

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Aneurism

Lecture 86th

This is said to be of two kinds, the true & the false Aneurism; The first is a Tumor formed by arterial Blood from the dilatation of the Coat of an artery. The last is a Tumor made by arterial Blood from the Coats of an artery being cut or torn, & the Blood diffused into the neighbouring parts. Dr Friend in his history of Physic says, that the Ancients were unacquainted with the Aneurism, but it is plain, Paul Aeginetta knew it & described it particularly. The true Aneurism happens commonly in the Arteries nearest the Heart, particularly at the Curvature of the Aorta. The false Aneurism is of two kinds, Diffused and Circumscribed. When an Artery is ulcerated, as by a sanation bleeding & the wound bound so tight as to stop the bleeding externally; the Blood is effused into the Cellular Membrane of the Limb, makes the Skin black & the Limb appears like a Blood pudding. This Case happened to a Man after bleeding, the Cellular Membrane of the whole Arm & side of the Body was filled with Blood, & the Man died the next day from the great quantity of Blood, that had got out of the road of the Circulation, which was the same as tho' I had got out of his body, in this Case we must not expect to feel a pulsation in the parts. The Circumscribed kind is thus formed. If strong pressure is made upon the wound in the Artery, so as to prevent the Effusion of Blood the Arm is numb, looks livid & no Pulse is felt at the wrist, yet as the Arm is warm, there are hopes that the Circulation will increase gradually thro' the anastomosing branches, and the pressure is continued in hopes of healing the Artery; after some days the Ligature is removed & the wound appears quiet. But after this there will grow

Aneurism

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will grow up a little Circumscribed Tumor with pulsation, & this will gradually grow bigger, bigger, because the coats of the Artery are not united, but only the Cellular Membrane compressed together, which not being so strong as the Coats of the Artery will be made to give way, by the jerking Motion of the Blood in the Artery upon it. So that here is an Aneurism from the breach of an Artery, & a Sac made by the stretched Cellular Membrane, & this Sac will be so similar to that of a true Aneurism, that we cannot distinguish one from the other, unless we know the history of the Case. There is an Aneurism of the mixed kind, the Varicose Aneurism, which is fully described in the London Medical Observations &c. The Vein has been punctured quite thro' & this in bleeding at the bend of the Arm, & the Lancet has at the same time opened the Artery. The anterior Orifice of the Vein heals up with the external wound as usual. The posterior Orifice of the Vein heals up, & unites with the Orifice in the Artery, in such a Manner as that the Vein & Artery have a hole of communication between them, & they so united too that the Blood cannot be effused into the Cellular Membrane, the Blood flows out of the Cavity of the Artery thro' this hole of communication into the Cavity of the Vein, & is by it returned to the Heart. The pulsating Motion of the Blood dilates the Vein. There is in this Case an external Tumor, the blood does not where coagulate as in the other Aneurism, but continues circulating. The Pulsation in this Case, gives the Tumor a tumulous feel, & when the Ear is applied close to the Tumor a kind of hissing noise is heard like that of a fluid running from a large Source into a narrow Channel. It has never been found necessary to perform the Operation of tying the Artery for the Varicose Aneurism, as many have

have used laborious exercise with this Complaint for years without any disadvantage. In all Aneurisms true or false, when the Artery cannot be tied, the Case is generally incurable. Before we do the operation, we should try first the Puncturing cure by pressure on the wounded Artery, as it has sometimes succeeded by consolidating the parts, as when the Operation is necessary, we should keep a pressure up: on the Artery for a fortnight or three weeks before we perform it, by which means the small anastomosing branches will be dilated which are afterwards to keep up the Circulation. The anastomosing branches are so numerous that the Circulation will be kept up tho' the Artery be tied very high up. Dr. Ferrius is of opinion that if the principal Artery could be tied, yet the Limb would be maimed. We must never take off the Limb in these Cases, till we have given the Ligature upon the Trunk of the Artery the Trial. The extremity below the Ligature will be numb & without any pulse for some days, but it will grow gradually warmer, & a pulse will increase in it, & will in the space of a month or two be nearly as good as ever. It often happens that the Humeral Artery divides into two branches before it comes to the bend of the Arm. In the Operation we should examine into this, lest we tie both branches in our hurry, for the one lies close to, & immediately under the other. If only one is wounded, we tie both, we lose the great Advantage that must accrue, from having one of them to carry on the Circulation. If only one branch is tied, we feel a pulsation at the Wrist immediately after the Operation: if it is the principal Trunk that is tied, we don't feel one for some days. When we proceed to the Operation of tying the wounded Artery, at the bend of the Arm, for instance; we apply the

Tourniquet,

Tourniquet, then we make a longitudinal incision thro' the integuments in the direction of the artery, divide the Fascia of the Biceps, remove all the gummy blood, & dissect down to the artery which lies generally under the Vein & the nerve lie to that side of it near the former Condyle; this should be done so as not to cut thro' the Vein if we can avoid it, tho' it is not of much consequence, when the artery is in view, bend the arm which relaxes the parts, & if we cannot then readily pass the Ligature under the artery & tie it without taking up the nerve with it, Professor Morro directs us to put the end of the Probe into the wound of the artery & raise it up, that we may the more certainly avoid tying the nerve. If we cannot readily separate the Vein, it may be tied with the artery. The artery must be tied below as well as above the wounded part, or an hæmorrhage will ensue; instead of tying the artery it has been recommended by the French Surgeons to lay a bit of Agave or of sponge upon the Orifice, which it was thought would by their Suppurative quality, prevent hæmorrhage, and heal up the Orifice: It has never been tried in England. Mr Gambett of Newcastle recommends uniting the edges of the wound in the artery by two pins as we do in a Flap Lip, but this is such a delicate operation that it can hardly be recommended. Compresses laid along the course of the upper part of the artery have been used with a view to support the Ligatures, & abate the impetus of Blood against them but they seem to be quite unnecessary.

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Lecture 87

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Within these 140 Years, (that is) since the discovery of the Circulation of the Blood, the Tourniquet has been invented, for the ancients used no sort of compression to hinder loss of blood in the Operation of amputation, & no wonder therefore that they speak of it as a very dangerous one. Sallustius gives us an account of a Surgeon at Padua particularly famous for bleeding in the Artery at the Wrist, & says that the bleeding was stopped by pressing the Artery against the bone. He invented an Instrument to make this pressure, it was a Steel one to go round the Arm with a Screw, & Button end to be secured down upon the Artery, but we do not find that he had any Idea of a Tourniquet for Amputation. When Benserain in France was besieged by the Spaniards in 1674 a Surgeon in the Town invented the Tourniquet, & used it upon the Wounded People, there first of all, it was a Towel twisted round by two sticks, his name was Morelli, & son of a Father to a Practitioner in Surgery now in that Town of the same name. The Tourniquet was first published in 1679 by Young, a Surgeon at Plymouth, in his Curus Triumphalis, but as he uses the Wood Button instead of Stick there is great reason to think that he gained the knowledge of this Instrument from the Frenches. Petit invented the Iron Tourniquet in 1718, which is the most convenient of all. Till 1714 Morelli's Tourniquet was generally used as appears from Dionis. There are four Greek Authors, who have written on Amputation, for we consider (close as o Greek). The first was Aetius, who lived in the time of Trajan. His writings with those of Heliodorus

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Heliodorus were never published till lately at Florence. He says the Vessels leading to the part to be amputated are to be tied or wound, that on some the whole part is to be bound, but don't say how; when they fill up, the Bow is to be put on which is quite unintelligible, the Skin is to be drawn up & bound where we are to cut; then after the incision, show which is to be done, we are not told; the Nerve are to be drawn together & the bone sawn thro'; if there is bleeding, a hot Iron is to be applied to the Wound. This is his obscure Account of the Operation. Heliodorus was the next; what time he lived in we don't know. Juvenal in his sixth Satire mentions one Heliodorus a Surgeon, but whether it is the same is not certain. He is short upon the Operation but is clear. He says that Amputation is more dangerous the higher it is performed on account of the Hemorrhage, that they are Foolish Folks who divide all the flesh down to the bone at once, that he always made a proper Ligature above first, which he says is to make the Vessels small, then he cuts down to the Bone on that side where it is least covered with flesh, then saws the bone, & at one stroke cuts the rest of the flesh, Vessels in it, and immediately applies the hot Iron. Elsewhere is the next, he tells us that he cut down to the bone in one part having drawn up the Skin, then drew up the flesh, cut thro' the Bone, & lastly divided all the rest, but we don't find that he used any previous Ligature. Paulus Aeginetta is the fourth, he says that as sawing the bone took up a considerable space of time, the Hemorrhage was almost always fatal; He tells us that one Leonidas cuts down to the Bone first, on the part where the most, and the largest Vessels do not lie,

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not lie, then saws the bone, cuts thro' all the soft at once. where
the Vessels lie, and applies the hot Iron directly to stop the bleeding,
which is the very same way that Heliodorus did it in 189. It does
not appear plainly, that any One of these knew any thing of a
Tourniquet, and if any One before them had used any Instrument
of this kind they certainly must have known it. Albucasis recom-
mends cutting off Limbs at the Joint of the Elbow, and of the Knee
only, which shows that he was but an indifferent Surgeon.

Under the head of Amputation, Authors generally treat first of
Mortification. One kind of Mortification happens to Old People, the
Cause generally arises in their Constitution, & produces its Effects
so as to make the Disease go on after One part has been already cut
off to prevent its spreading; Such Cases almost always prove fatal.
Another kind very different from the former happens in Young People,
from internal Causes. This is frequently cured, & therefore we should
never give up a case of this kind. In both these Cases the Bark is
the best Remedy, & should be given in large & often repeated Doses.
Another kind is that proceeding from Cold; this generally takes place
in the Extremities of the body, and as it is not Constitutional is easily
stopped. Another kind of Mortification is said to arise from
the Compression of a principal Artery, but this can very rarely be
the Case, because of the numerous Anastomoses of Arteries off
a part is tied so that the Circulation is entirely put a stop to, it
mortifies. A Man died of an Aneurism of the upper part of the
Brachial,

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Brachial Artery, & upon examining the Axilla it was found, that the pouch had pressed upon the trunk so as to occasion its degeneration into an impervious Ligament no less down as the bend of the Arm, and tho' the Artery was here completely pressed upon, yet the Circulation continued thro' the Limb just as well, as ever. Great Contusions sometimes produce a Mortification, from the bad Fever attending them, sometimes from the part, being rendered totally unfit for carrying on the Circulation. When a Mortification is local, for instance when it is owing to Cold, we may determine immediately upon Amputation, yet no one would think of performing it, till a beginning Inflammation & Suppuration shew how far the part is dead. If there is reason to suspect the Cause is Constitutional, we should wait till the Mortification is fairly & fully stopped before we amputate. If a Limb is crushed we cut it off, because we judge that it will mortify. Some Accidents however have come well & surprisingly, so that we should never be too fond of this operation. Amputation is also performed for some Diseases, which appear otherwise to be incurable.

Amputationth

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In Amputating one Rule is, to preserve as much of the Body as possible, but in Amputating a Finger or a Toe we do not adhere to this rule, for be the disease where it will, we cut off the Finger or Toe at the Joint. One Objection to cutting off Limbs at the Joint is, that the Bone is there very broad, and not easily to be covered by the Skin, and another Objection is that Cartilages & Ligamentous parts are apt to inflame, slough, & not granulate kindly. There being as much Flesh at the Joints of the Fingers as at the Internodes, and the Bone not being very broad there in proportion to what it is at the Internodes, is the reason, why Surgeons adhere to the practice of Amputating the Fingers and Toes at the Joints. When we cut off a Finger, the Radial & Ulnar Arteries may be compressed by the Fingers of an Assistant to avoid a Spirit of Blood that might obstruct the operation, or we may compress them by a Roller, & two compresses. The Radial runs along the fore part of the Radius near the Wrist, the Ulnar runs close on the inner side of the Piriform Bone towards the Palm of the Hand. A little Skin should be saved: when we have cut the Capsular Ligament, before and behind, still we find the Finger don't disjoin, but if we feel for the joint on the side with our Nail & cut the Lateral Ligament, it immediately disjoins: there will be only a little Spining Artery on each of the Fingers that will hardly require the Needle. If the Flue or Tend on should start out, it must be cut off with a knife or Scissors.

For cutting

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In cutting off the Finger at the Metacarpal Bone, we cut down on each side, & saw the Bone thro', & here there will be a necessity for the needle. The Amputating Knife should be straight & not crooked. The Teeth of the Saw should be very small. The Cutters should be small & straight. To take off the left Arm we should stand before the Patient, if the right, behind the Patient, because with the left hand we draw the flesh about the Saw; if we stood vice versa, an assistant must draw it up, & we could not saw so close as to his hand as our own. In amputating a Limb there is no need for laying a Tape round to direct the knife. If the Skin is shrivelled & loose, we may put a Roller round it a little below, where we are to cut to keep the Skin firm, so that it may not recede from the Knife, & this appears to be the only purpose the Tape can serve. When we amputate the Fore Arm, we cut thro' the Skin & Cellular Membrane at two Places, then draw them up, divide all the flesh down to the Bone, divide the Intersosseous parts, & saw the Bone. If the Leg is taken off just above the Ankle, the remaining part of the Leg will be always cotenuated, because the Extensor Muscles being rendered useless will shrink. We make the same incision when we amputate the Arm as we do the Fore Arm, & the Operation on the lower Extremities exactly corresponds with that on the upper Extremities. Colver's Operation for the Upper & lower Extremity, especially where it has only a single bone, appears to be a much better one than ours. The Skin & Flesh were first drawn up & an incision made thro' them down to the bone, then the Superficial Muscles were drawn up from those fixed to the bone, & then cut thro' to the bone as high as

the places

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the place to which the Superficial ones are drawn up, & the bone was sown
there even with the parts last divided, so that when the muscles & skin
were pulled down again, the bone was considerably below their surface,
as they made a thick fleshy union when the Stump healed. The Flap operation
was invented by Young, Surgeon at Plymouth and published in 1617
along with the Tourniquet in his Curus Triumphantis: In 1691. Lister
recommended this operation. It was designed for the leg principally,
but it came into disuse. Le Deau seemed to have a good opinion of
it. It has been practised lately in England by Dr White of Manchester,
& Mr Broomfield in London. but whether it is better than the common
method of amputation we dont know. Mr John Hunter thinks it may
do for one whose way of life will not call him to stand or walk much,
as that the common Stump is better to them who walk or stand a
good deal in their business. It was found that the Flap would not
always unite with the Stump, but Dr White says, if the wound is
dressed loosely, & after the suppuration of the Flap, & Stump is fully
established by the granulation liquor, then if the Flap is laid over the
Stump they will always unite. The Amputation of the Arm at the
Shoulder according to Le Deau, owes its invention to his Father, but
it is plain that Morangi's Father was the author of it. They used to
begin the operation by passing a large Needle under all the muscles
at the Acilla close to the Bone, & tied all these with a Ligature to secure
the Artery. Mr Broomfield's method of doing this operation is tire-
some, painful, & horrible, & inferior to the present usual method laid
down by Dr Sharpe. Dr Hunter was the first who recommended pressure
to be made on the Artery, where it passes over the first rib to answer
the same purpose as the Tourniquet does in other Amputations,
this however is not absolutely necessary, for Dr Wood says, that when
he performed

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he performed the Operation at Bristol, he cut the Artery, but he could not immediately lay hold of it & stop the Bleeding. We cut thro' the Skin & Cellular Membrane at the fore part of the Shoulder, first towards the Axilla, then fell for the Artery, & divide the fore part of the Deltoid Muscle, the Tendon of the Pectoralis, the short head of the Biceps, & the Coraco-Brachialis, & tie the Artery along with the Vein, then cut thro' all the rest quite to the joint, by putting the Arm close down to the side of the body, we easily cut thro' the Capsular Ligament at the top of the joint, & then the rest is done presently, this should be done so as to save Skin & flesh enough to cover the Acetabulum Scapulae. The Axillary Vessels lie between the united insertion of the Sapiosimus Dorsi & Vena Major behind, & the Biceps & Coraco Brachialis before. In Tying the Vessels, some take up a considerable quantity of Flesh, thus lie only the bare Artery. It is best to tie but little flesh along with it. The Ligature in two or three days after the Operation often becomes loose, & from this Cause a Secondary Bleeding has happened, which tho' but small perhaps only a few Ounces, has occasioned a fatal fainting. This is more likely to happen when much flesh has been tied along with the Artery. They who are fond of tying the flesh with the Artery say, that if the Artery is tied alone, it is apt to be cut thro' by the Ligature, or to have the Ligature slip off: the Ligature should only be tied moderately tight, for if it is drawn very tight, this perhaps the Artery is not divided, it often happens that the thick Muscular Coat is pinched thro', & the Artery adheres only by its inner Coat, & the Cellular Membrane on the outside of the Artery, so that in this Case it happens, that in a few days after the Operation, a Tumor is seen just at that part of the Stump where the Artery lies, which has a pulsation. This is an Aneurism of the end of the Artery for the strong Coat being divided, the inner is dilated out at every pulsation by degrees and makes a growth, so that it will be necessary to tie the Artery again

above,

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above the dilated part, which will be now attended with some difficulty on account of the Artery having shrunk; or perhaps the Artery is quite cut thro', then the Cellular Membrane will give way & form the Pouch. This accident is not so likely to happen in young as in old People. A young Artery is not so easily crushed, on account of its Muscular Coat being more fibrous & tough in its texture. Dr. Brown: Jell's Hook to draw out an Artery to be tied is a very good instrument, particularly where an Artery bleeds at the bottom of a deep Wound, as on the side of the Prostate Gland in the operation for the Stone, and tying the Artery alone: when drawn out it gives hardly less pain than tying it with the flesh as done by the Treadle. It answers very well in Theory, but as it is said that if the flesh is not tied with the Artery, it is apt to cut thro', it remains a doubt whether it is so well in Practice. The tying the Artery along with the flesh, rather than: able parts gives more pain than any other part of the operation whatever. By tying the Artery alone in Dr. Brownfield's way the pain is infinitely less. A Surgeon at St. George's Hospital tied an Artery in a deep wound according to Dr. Brownfield's way, & the Patient bled to Death; but then a dispute arose whether it was the Artery that was tied which bled from the Ligature slipping off from it, or from its being cut thro', or whether it was an Artery that had not been tied, for it frequently happens that an Artery will bleed sometime after the operation, which did not bleed during the time of it. Tying the Vessels was used previous to the invention of the Tourniquet, for we find that Ambrose Paree this Method of stopping Bleeding by Ligature.

The Gravida Uterus

Lecture 89th

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To take a View of the Gravida Uterus in a general way we shall consider it as it appears towards the latter end of Pregnancy that is in the ninth Month. Its size is very different in different Women, & in the same Woman at different Times. — There is much Variety in the Bulk of the Fetus & in the quantity of Water, that this cannot be ascertained. The Uterus possesses all the space between the Lips, Its Fundus rises up as high in the Cavity of the Abdomen, generally speaking, as midway between the Navel & Pubiculus Cordis, but as this must vary in tall & short Women, we cannot say exactly where it comes up to, in the former it must be lower, in the latter it must be higher considering the Uterus in both to be of equal Dimensions. In crooked little Women it often presses the Peritoneum of the Pelves outwards. If we strike the Abdomen of a Woman that is Pregnant upon the fore part of the Distended Uterus, the sound is as if we had struck upon the thigh or any other fleshy part; if we strike on the side of the Uterus, the sound is hollow as if we had struck a bladder filled with air, for on the fore part there is nothing between it & the containing parts of the Abdomen, but on the side the Peritoneum lies between it and the Peritonaeum. These signs are solid certain proofs of a Woman's being with Child, but if by laying one hand upon the Abdomen we can feel the Child move strongly in Utero, we cannot be mistaken. The fore part of the Uterus lies in contact with the Peritonaeum, so that in the favorable situation we can hardly cut or wound the Viscera of the Abdomen at any Intestine. The Epiploon will sometimes, tho' very rarely, descend before the Uterus, but this cannot be the case with the Peritoneum, because they are tied behind to the Mesenteries. The subdane of the Epiploon being mostly fat is therefore specifically lighter than the body of

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body of the Uterus, seems to be the reason why it always rises above
it. A woman is seldom equally big on each side. In most Women
the Child with the greatest part of the Uterus lies towards the right
side, & the reason of this difference is, that as the Uterus descends
& rises up from the Pelvis it finds more ease in lying on one side of
the projecting Spine. Women in the last Months of Pregnancy
are often troubled with numbness & Cramps in one particular
Leg & Thigh, and this we always find is on that side which is longest
in respect to the Abdomen, and is most probably occasioned by
the Uterus pressing on the Nerves of that Limb. It has been a question
whether this oblique position of the Uterus might not be sometimes
so great as to occasion a difficult Labour by throwing the Mouth of
the Uterus out of its natural position. The Idea was absurd, for
enough of the Uterus will always remain in the Cavity of the Pelvis
to preserve the Os Tincæ in its natural Situation. The Parietes
of the Abdomen of Women in their first Pregnancy are tighter than
if they had had a Child before, the Uterus therefore instead of projecting
so much outward, as it does in future Pregnancies is braced upwards
into the Cavity of the Abdomen considerably high, the Rays hurt
them exceedingly about the pit of the Stomach, & they are obliged
to wear a Waistcoat, and in late Women the prominence of the Belly
will be so little, that we very often do not think they are with Child,
while at the same time they are ready to lie in, unless we examine
them. A Woman who has had a Child, has her Skin, Muscles &
other parts of the Abdomen much looser than before, & in advanced
Pregnancy they are often so loose, & the Uterus projects so much
from not being braced up, that it hangs over the Pelvis as it were, &
we say the Belly is pendulous. In this Case the Uterus does not
rise

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rise near so high up, this oblique position of the Uterus from its bending over the Pubis dont seem to occasion any difficulty in Labour, nor does the Obliquity when it falls to one side, or the Shape of the Gravid Uterus is Uniform, its lower end may be compared to the small end of an Egg. It does not take this shape from internal distension, as has been supposed, it grows of itself for if it enlarged by its being pressed out by the increase of its contents, it would then be more tense in proportion as it is more distended. A Person's Skin is not stretched by the growth of the other parts of the body, but it grows, & is as loose in an adult state as it was in the state of Childhood, after this manner exactly the Uterus increases, & distends itself, and is always loose & unstretched, and might with a great deal of ease hold much more than it does. It dont make a regular bag, but is continually varying its figure from the neighbouring parts in the different positions of the body, & also from the pressure of its contents. By the hand moved upon the abdomen we can generally feel great inequalities on its surface from the projection of the Breast, Head, Elbow, &c. of the Fetus. Albucius's Figure of the Impregnated Uterus is false, because he has drawn it of an exact oval figure, the Fetus is all carried up to the upper part of the abdomen by the Fundus Uteri, & lies principally on the left side, the Liver fills the right side of the Cavity above the Fundus. The Blood Vessels of the Uterus are the Spinal Arteries going in above, & the Hypogastric Vessels going in below. The two Sets of Arteries anastomose freely, & so do the Veins. In the Uterus Gestation they enlarge exceedingly, the Arteries become tortuous, but the Veins do not. The large Veins especially towards the lower are called the Sinuses of the Uterus. It is generally believed that these

Vessels

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Vessels are the largest at the back part of the Uterus, but this is not always true; they are always largest at that part to which the Placenta chances to be fixed, whether it be fixed on the inside of the fundus, or of the back part, or of the side, or high up, or low down. When we examine the outer surface of an Uterus impregnated & find in any part large swelling Vessels, we may be certain that the Placenta is fixed immediately on the inside of that part, from this we know exactly how it lies. As the Uterus grows it has been said that it grows thinner, Others have said that it grows thicker. It grows rather thicker upon the whole, and the flesh of it is softer when impregnated than when unimpregnated, but the thickness in one Woman is often much greater than in another. We cannot ^{trace} the Muscular fibres distinctly except at the inside, where they appear pretty plainly after the Decidua is scraped off. They are always disposed in Circles round the two Orifices of the Fallopian Tubes as their Center, and the outer Circle of the two directions of fibres meet as tangents to one another at the middle between the two Orifices. Where the Placenta adheres, the inner Surface of the Uterus is exactly like the outer surface of the Placenta, & the inner surface of the Uterus where the Membranes adhere is exactly the same as the outer Surface of the Membranes.

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The Uterus when it lies against the Pubis is guided by those bones above this it swells out, below it is contracted into a point, and is terminated by the Os Sinca which makes the Orifice leading into the Vagina, and the Os Sinca always projects a little way into the Vagina. The Tenuous Uter only contains the Child till a very little time before ^{the} delivery, when the Os Sinca is examined just before Labour, it appears more like a ridge than a Sijer, it is said that the Cervix is dilated gradually into the Tenuous, but this seems only to happen very late. The Cervix is blocked up by a firm Jelly, which came out of little Cavities like so many small prosepers & adheres to the Rugae. It is much firmer in the first Month, than afterwards, at the time of Birth the Os Sinca dilates, the Orifice enlarges & the Jelly goes away. It is commonly said that the Orifice of the Womb is closed, when a Woman is with Child, but it is not closed, for generally speaking we can get the point of our finger a little way within the Orifice. There are no means which can make a Woman miscarry, that will not stand as good a chance of killing as of bringing about Abortion, Injunct. Saver we have no particular power over the Uterus, but only act on it as they affect the Constitution in general. Bleeding frequently in large quantities with strong purges often repeated have sometimes procured Abortion in Patients of delicate Constitution by weakening them, as for running any thing up the Orifice of the Uterus, & breaking the Membranes so as to let out the Water, which undoubtedly will procure Miscarriage, it will as easily go thro' the substance of the Uterus as thro' the firm Jelly which closes it, & the Lamella of the Peritoneum which are the broad Ligaments of the Uterus, always disappear in Utero Gestation, for the Uterus as it swells out unfolds the lateral folds of the Peritoneum, which makes these

Ligaments

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Ligaments, and takes them for to cover it, so that what is at another time, the broad Ligament is now the lateral Peritoneal covering of the Uterus, & the Fallopian Tubes are drawn down close to the Uterus. In the Ovarium of a Woman that is pregnant or that has been lately delivered, there is a little yellow fleshy body called the Corpus Luteum, it has in its middle either a white Cavity, or a little white Glandular looking body, which is very Vascular; its Circumference is not round, but is as it were scalloped, its Surface is a number of processes. When a Woman has lately conceived, that part of the Ovarium where the Corpus Luteum would be is exceedingly Vascular as compared to the other parts of it. The Contents of the Uterus are the Fetus, the Digested Amnion or Waters, & the secundines, and the secundines consist of the Navel String, the Placenta, & the Membranes. The Navel String comes from the Placenta, the Membranes come off the edge of the Placenta, & make with it a complete bag round the inside of the Uterus without any perforation in it. This bag breaks in the time of Birth at that point which lies over the Os of the Uterus. The Child being acted upon by the pains of Labour breaks the Membrane, the Water comes thro' this break; when the Head follows, & the Navel String is dragged out by the Child. Let the Placenta be fixed to whatever part of the Uterus it will, the rupture of the Membrane will always happen at the Os of the Uterus, so that by looking upon the rupture in the Membrane that came away with the rest of the secundines, we can always tell how high up the Placenta was fixed to the Uterus, for example, if the Placenta was fixed to the Fundus Uteri then the sides of the Membrane (measuring from the Placenta to the ruptured part) are of an equal length. The secundines are of a particular Organization strikingly quite different from a fibrous texture, they are a temporary substance of a gelatinous appearance, made to live for 9 months only. The whole secundines do not contain a single Globule of Red. Muscles commonly call a white Placenta a fetal one.

The Navel

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The Navel String is made up of two Arteries & one Vein more or less twisted round each other; & is of different Length from a Foot to a Yard. The Arteries are a continuation of the Trunks of the joined Placentae, sometimes only one Artery is found in the String; and of one Vessel in this Case that Dr Hunter had an opportunity of examining, by dissection he found that it came from one inner place only; in others perhaps it is owing to the Anastomosis of the two Arteries at the Navel, some Strings are twisted very much, most of them are twisted irregularly. The end next the Placenta is twisted pretty regularly, the other end next the Child is twisted more irregularly, so that we can commonly tell what part each end belongs to, after the String is cut off from the Placenta & Child. Some again are hardly twisted at all, the short Navel String is sometimes supposed to cause a difficult Labour, by hindering the passage of the Child, it is an exceeding rare Case. The same thing may be said to the opinion of difficulty being occasioned by the String being twisted around the Child's neck, or any other part of the Child so as to shorten it, it is covered by a smooth Coat externally, a production of the Membranes. The Arteries & Vein instead of being connected together by cellular Membrane have a white & clamorous Substance between them. This Jelly feels very spongy tough & viscid, it may be dissolved in water; & then the String will lose considerably of its bulk, so that when we tie the Navel String, we should tie hard particularly if it is a thick One for the Arteries being defended by this Jelly will not be sufficiently compressed by slight tying. We should always tie it with a broad Ligature to the Crumpling of the Coat, the Jelly gives the string a considerable strength, but its chief Use seems to be to prevent the Vessels being compressed, for if the Circulation is stop'd thro' the String the Child must die; perhaps

Compression

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Compression of the Vessels of the String is the Cause of Death to many
still born Children, which we cant otherwise account for. Generally speaking,
the String dont go to the Middle of the Placenta, but rather to one
side, as when it gets thru the Vessels branch, this it is. The two Arteries
run the whole length of the String without vending off a single branch,
but just as they enter the Placenta, they always anastomose with each
other. In extraordinary Cases the Navel String will sometimes lead
on to the Membranes, but then the Vessels all run to that Placenta, when we
cut the Navel String, we commonly leave an inch, or an inch & half, with
the body of the Child. The Shape of the Placenta is very various, it is thick-
est at the Middle, its outer surface is convex, answering the Concavity
of the Uterus, its inner surface is gently concave, the inner Surface is
smoothed by the Membranes continued over it, the outer Surface is
uneven marked by Furrows, which divide into portions like the Lobes
of the Brain, these furrows are not deep unless made by force, we find
in bringing away the Placenta from the Uterus. There is always a vesi-
culate Navel String to every Foetus whether there be two or more, some-
times the Placenta of each is united to the other edgewise, & other times
they are found to be situated at some distance. It very often happens
that a Placenta has a little lobed fixed to it, the greatest part of
the substance of the Placenta, is made up of branches of the Arteries &
the Vein of the Navel String; this we call the fetal part of the Placenta,
in opposition to the maternal part of it which is made by the Vessels
from the Mother. It is a common Opinion that the Fetus throws its
Blood to the Mother by the Arteries, & receives Blood back from the Mother
by the Vein, but all the Vessels of the Navel String terminate in the
Placenta, as if we draw the Circulation from Blood immediately after
they come,

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they come away, by pulling them in water & milking the String, we can inject the Placenta very minutely from the String, & none of the Injection will escape, which would not be the case, if the Vessels of the Child were continuations of the Vessels of the Mother, as the branches of the Arteries & Veins are now & more very numerous in the Placenta, so that by injecting the Artery from the String, the Injection very readily returns by the Vein, and by injecting the Vein it very readily returns by the Artery, no part of the body appears more Vasculated than the Placenta. The Membranes are three, first the Amnion or Amnion beginning from the Child & proceeding outward to the Uterus; Second the Chorion; Third the Decidua, before called the false or Spungy Chorion. The inner Membrane of Amnion in a human Subject is uniformly clear, & without any appearance of Vessels or Organization, it is like a Film of Jelly; its outer surface is covered with a Jelly, by which it adheres uniformly to the Chorion on the outside of it, but so loosely that it is easily separated from that Membrane, this Membrane adheres to the Fetal String, but so firmly that it can't be separated, so that it makes a complete Bag, & the Water can touch nothing but the outside of the Child & the Amnion; viz the outside of Amnion seem like a continuation of each other, tho' then it is very firm & will resist being broken more than the others as it is perfectly transparent every where. The Chorion has been divided into two Lamellae, an inner & an outer, the inner called the clear, the outer the Spungy Chorion, but we rather choose to call the inner Lamella the Chorion, & the outer Lamella the Decidua, the former is pretty firm, the latter is very tender, the Chorion covers all the outer surface of the Amnion

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amnios, lines the inner surface of the Decidua, as far as the edge of the Placenta, & then is continued over the inner surface of the Placenta, & therefore to the Navel String, it is inseparably united every where with the Placenta. In general it is very thin, but as it approaches the Placenta, it grows thicker, & upon that it is partly thick. The Decidua called by Others the false or Spongy Chorion is opaque, & very much of the Consistence of a Curd, it peels off from the Uterus, so as to have a rough surface; it is connected to the Chorion by little threads, the remains of Vessels, which are seen to be torn this in separating the one Membrane from the other. It parts from the Chorion at the edge of the Placenta, & is extended over the external surface of the Placenta, so as to give it a surface not filled with Vessels, as its Substance is, It has no Vessels from the Navel String, but it has Vessels from the Womb, & is properly an inner Lamella from the Womb, these Vessels are plainly to be seen upon the Membrane, immediately after the coming away of the Secundines, especially if the Woman was delivered before her time, the Uterus furnishes a fresh Decidua, every time it is impregnated which peels off at Birth & makes part of the Secundines, & at the next pregnancy another is furnished, the budding or reproduction of this Membrane is the reason of our calling it Decidua. It is an effluence from the Uterus to this Membrane, if we spread it on a piece of paper immediately after it comes away from the Uterus, & hold it before the fire to dry it with the Blood in the Vessels. The late Professor Monro would not allow that it recd Vessels from the Uterus, but it certainly does.

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Lecture 91

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Many Quadrupeds have only one Placenta, & make a round figure as in the Rabbit. Others have a Placenta, like a Belt, which surrounds the Fetus, & its Membranes, as the Dog & Cat; Others have perhaps 70 or 80 Placentas, or Placentulas, as in Cows; the Placenta in a Cow is plainly of two kinds; there is a Spongy grows up from the Uterus with a number of Cavities in it; there is another Mass which is the Fetal, part of the Placenta, the Vessels of this part are inserted into the Cavities in the Spongy part. The Vessels of the one part are intermixed with the Vessels of the other, but not united, for one set may be exceedingly minutely injected, without any of the injection entering the other set. The Principles of the Fetal part are, the Vessels come out of these cavities at Birth, the Fetal Placenta separates from the Uterine Placenta, & comes away; the Uterine Placenta or Spongy is left behind sticking to the Uterus, & gradually wastes away, which Spongy is renewed when the Cow is with Calf again, so it is generally in all the Ruminants, in the Animals it is plain that the Placenta is double, made up of two parts, Uterine & Fetal, from this circumstance I thought concluded that it is so in the Human Placenta. The Placenta is very spongy, it may be blown up by means of a Pipe thrust into it, & the Air will escape by a thousand Orifices, each of these Orifices is the mouth of a Vein, coming from the Uterus, it has also a number of unobscured Arteries running on its surface; the fact is a great number of Arteries & Veins enter the Placenta from the Uterus, & soon terminate in its spongy substance, and the Veins take up the Blood & return it again to the Mother. Some have thought that there is an Allantois in the Human Subject as well as in Quadrupeds; in the Cow this is particularly evident, it is

a Bag.

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a Bag in the Uterus for containing the Urine of the Fetus or Calf, from it there goes a Pipe along the Navel String, which enters at the Navel & goes to the Bladder of the Calf, the Bag is called the *Bladdow*, & the Pipe is called the *Urachus*, but there is neither *Bladdow* nor *Urachus* in the Human Subject. The Contents of the Secundines are the *Digues Amnion* & the *Fetus*, the quantity of the *Digues Amnion* is very different in different Women, sometimes there is not more than three pints, at other times there are many Quarts. And about it sometimes happens that the Membranes are prolapsed out at the Vagina unbroken, if in this Case we scratch the Membranes & let the *Digues* out, we generally find it dead which is a Proof that it is not always *foetal* towards the end of Uterine gestation, as some have supposed, sometimes indeed it is *foetal*, which perhaps is owing to a little of the *Meconium* being pressed from the Rectum of the Fetus, & tinging it blackish or greenish, for the *Meconium* is of a black or green colour, & if the Child is dead, especially, it is very apt to escape from the Rectum, the *Digues* is like Water not *ropy*, it is very saline, & the Salt it contains is the true Sea Salt. The principal Use of this *Digues* seems to be, to keep the Uterus out from the Fetus & prevent its being destroyed, for a blow upon the Uterus will on this account have no Effect upon the Fetus, no more than a Cork will be affected by a blow given to a leatheren Bottle, which contains a Cork, & is filled with Water; it seems likewise to have some effect in keeping the Membranes, & the Placenta, adhering to the Uterus, by pressing them against it, some have supposed that it serves for the nourishment of the Fetus, & that it has the properties of the Serum of the Blood, or the white of an Egg, but it does not serve that purpose, neither has it those properties, for it remains as fluid as ever after it has been exposed to a boiling heat, & no Coagulant mixed with it. At the time of Labour

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Labour, the Placenta is untied with the Uterus, & when the Child is born, the Navel String is to be cut, when it is cut, if a Ligature is not made upon it near the Child, the Child will bleed to Death, or lose a great quantity of Blood, but there is no occasion for making a Ligature on the side near the Mother, there is no danger of the Woman's bleeding to Death, for the Blood passes from the Uterus to the Navel String, the small quantity of Blood which comes out, is only what the Placenta contained, & is purged out of it by the contraction of the Uterus. We commonly make a Ligature near the Mother for the sake of Cleanliness, tho' it is better not to do so, for by leaving the Vessels open for discharging the Blood from the Placenta, as that is purged on by the contracting Uterus it's bulk will be diminished & it will afterwards pass more easily, than the Vagina, & we may prevent the Blood from the Navel string clashing the Red Cloth by wrapping the end of it in a Cloth. The reason why a Deadwarder don't bleed at Birth is that the Arteries of the Navel String are torn thro', & therefore don't bleed, as the Arteries of the Miller's Arm did not bleed when they were torn thro' by the Mill, and an Artery which is bruised will not bleed for which reason Mr. Arnold recommends bruising the spermatic artery instead of tying it in Castration. Dr Hunter once attended a bitch that purged, & saw that she licked up the Waters immediately after they came from it, & when a Puppy was born, she tore thro' the Navel String at some distance from the Navel, & swallowed the Scandals with great eagerness, but there was no bleeding from the Puppy, he cut off the Navel String from one Puppy, & the Blood spouted from it, but the Bitch turned round & immediately as she saw this, she laid her head on the end with her Teeth, & the Blood directly stopp'd. To know what the tearing the Navel String of a Child this would have the same effect, Dr Hunter & Dr Macaulay did as follows, as soon as a Child was born, & the Placenta still adhering to the Uterus, they tore the String thro', at some distance,

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distance from the Navel, & no Blood came, then after being perfectly satisfied they made the Ligature at the usual place, & cut off the long piece of Navel String. The instant that the Placenta separates from the Uterus, the Vessels of the Uterus will bleed generally after birth, this separation happens gradually, the Uterus contracts & the Bleeding is not considerable, then never can be any considerable separation of the Placenta without an Hemorrhage, hence Uterine hemorrhages during the time of Gestation, are to be feared. Sometimes the Placenta happens to adhere immediately over the Os Tincæ, as that opens, of course pain is excited, whilst the Fetus within prevents the Uterus from contracting and stopping these Vessels. Such Labours are always dangerous and attended with great Bloodings. The size of the Fetus at nine Months is different in different births, commonly its weight is exaggerated. By weighing a great number of Children born at the full time in St. George's Street Hospital, New York, Dr. Maccauley found that they weighed generally from six to eight Pounds, the largest weighed 11. pounds, & some, the smallest about four pounds weight. The Fetus in the Uterus, is brought into as small a compass as possible, the Arms and Legs are more or less bent in a variety of Ways, so as to fill up the cavity between the Head & the Breech; the general and most natural position is with the Head downwards, the back to one side (commonly the right side) the Ribs, Sides of the body are backwards and forwards, or perhaps the Back and Belly are rather obliquely situated, than directly from side to side. The common Opinion was that the Head of the Child, in the first 7 or 8 Months of Pregnancy, was upwards, and that in the latter Months, it shifts its position by turning downwards, to
prepare

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preparan for birth, this may perhaps be the case sometimes, but the most natural position is with the Head always downwards. If we examine a woman standing about the 6th Month, we can feel that this is a fact, for with the Finger we can raise the Head up along with the rest of the body in the Waters, and it will again sink down as it was before, the reason why the Head naturally is downwards is this, the lower part of the Uterus is the most depending, even when the woman lies on her Back, and the Child being specifically heavier than the Liqueur Amnii, it will sink in it with its Head downwards too, because that is the heaviest part of the Child. In the first Months when the Fetus is very small, & the quantity of Liqueur great, then it floats about in every direction, but as it increases in bulk, the Water diminishes till at length it becomes too large to move about, and is locked by the Uterus in the position already described, 'tis exceedingly rare that a Child can turn in Utero, in the last Months. This seems to be the reason, why a Child is sometimes born with the Foot bent up against the fore part of the Leg, or clubbed as it is called, from its having been long locked in that position. In such Cases the Limbs were originally well formed, and therefore we can often restore them by degrees to their natural state, by bending them in their proper position, sometimes the Head is not downwards, this may happen from the Child starting, and striking, when I had but just room to move so as to alter its position from the most natural, & then to be locked in that position. If we throw a Fetus of 7 or 8 Months into a pail of Water in any position, the Head will always get to

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get to the bottom, first because the lower Extremities having a larger surface in proportion to their bulk, than the Head are specifically lighter. If the Fetus lies in the most compact form, and its Head downwards, how does the whole correspond with the Cavity of the Uterus? Now the Fetus measures more from before to behind, than it does from side to side, and the Uterus measures more from side to side, it lies with its Back to one side of the Uterus, and its Belly and Knees to the other, and as it can't easily lie on the spine, it lies rather more to one side of the Uterus, than to the other, this is its most natural position, but as the Child passes thro' the external Organs in Birth, it turns to adapt itself to the Pelvis, comes into the World with the Occiput against the Pubis, and the Face downwards toward the Perineum, which is the constant position of the Head, at the most natural Birth.

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The Luteal of the Child is projected on the Navel String, & where it ends the Gelatinous Substance begins; at this part the Navel String always drops, & the Thyroid of the Fetus is larger, divided into two Lobes, it hangs down in the cavity of the Chest before the large Vessels, & Pericardium; after the Birth it degenerates into a tough Ligamentous Substance, in a calf it is called the throat sweetbread, its use is not at all known. The Lungs that have never received Air into them are a firm, red, heavy Mass, like a piece of flesh in any other part of the body, & will sink as readily in Water; we are often called upon to give our opinion in a Case when a Woman is suspected of having murdered her Child that is newly born, we cut off a piece of the Lungs & throw it into Water, if it swims, we generally conclude that the Child was born alive & has breathed; if it sinks we conclude that it was born dead, & therefore never has breathed; we must not take upon us to say that a Child has breathed, because that we find the Lungs will swim, for if the Child has been dead any length of time especially in hot Weather, Putrefaction may have come on, & let loose the first Air into the Cellular Substance of the Lungs, & thereby cause them to swim in the same Manner as we see a dead Dog that has lain in Water some days, swims on its surface, & if the Child has lain dead some time in one position, the depending part of the Lungs will be filled with the watery Juices, & the Air being specifically lighter, will be pushed upward by them, so that below the Lungs will contain Water, & above they will contain Air, if a bit of the depending part is cut off, & thrown into Water it will sink tho' the Child

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Child has breathed, & the substance of the lungs & one part may be condensed from inflammation & as to sink in water, so that it is not in our power to say certainly that a Child was born alive from examining the lungs, & finding that they will swim, or that the Child was born dead, because a part of them at least will not swim. We should be very cautious therefore in what we say, & were it only in pity to the Unhappy Woman should always favour her, besides it is a very common thing when a Child is born dead, for Somebody to blow down the Throat by the Mouth to endeavour to revive it, & the Air they thus breathe getting into the lungs will distend them & have the same Effect upon them as if they had breathed. The upper parts of the Child are much larger in proportion than the lower Extremities, which are not only small in proportion to the Head, but also to the Trunk, & upper Extremities. The Pelvis is small at birth, hardly any part of the Bladder is so low as the Os Pubis, but rises considerably above it, & makes the Angle of reflection of the Uterum, a great way higher than the bone. The Uterus is principally above the Pelvis, & there is no part of the Fallopian tubes within the Pelvis, but as we go up the Pelvis grows larger, & then the Abdominal Contents, and those of the Pelvis fall lower down. The Blood don't circulate thro' the lungs as it does in an Adult, but it passes from the Pulmonary Artery into the Aorta by the Canalis Arteriosus, which is a Canal of communication between the Pulmonary Artery, & the beginning of the Aorta Descendens. When the Blood circulates thro' the lungs after Birth, this Canal becomes useless & dries up. From the Bladder to the Trunk there goes a Ligament which is supposed to be the Ligamentum

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the Ligamentous remains of the Urachus, become impervisible, as in the calf, & other Quadropeds, but there is never any the least appearance of an Urachus in the Human ^{Fetus} Subject, neither in its early nor its advanced state. The Ducta divides into two, the internal & the external Glia; the external which is the smaller in a Fetus goes thro' the Groin on to the Thigh as in the Adult. The Internal gives off a few small branches in the Pelvis, but the principal Trunk goes out at the Navel, & constitutes the Umbilical Artery. These Glia Arteries after Birth become impervisible from the Navel as far as where they give off the branches to the Pelvis, & degenerate into Ligaments. The Canalis Arteriosus, & the Elongation of the Internal Glia Arteries into the Umbilical, make the peculiarity in the Arterial System of the Fetus. The Venal System has a peculiarity there is a Vein going from the Liver out at the Navel, which forms the Umbilical Vein of the Navel String; from the Navel the Umbilical Vein goes up to the Spleen in the Liver along the edge of the Falciiform Ligament, where it unites & forms one Trunk with the left branch of the Vena Portarum, so that the returning blood from the Inferior Vena of the Fetus mixes with the returning blood from the Placenta; part of this mixed blood circulates thro' the Liver by the branch of the Vena Portarum, & part is carried into the Vena Cava Hepatica Sinistria by the Ductus Venosus, that runs between the Lobulus Spiegelii, & Left Lobe of the Liver. This Canal of communication the Ductus Venosus comes from the united Trunk of the Umbilical Vein, & left branch of the Vena Portarum, & opens into the Vena Cava Hepatica Sinistria just at the Trunk of the Vena Cava; Besides these

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these peculiarities in the Arterial & Venal System, there is another, in the Heart itself, the Foramen Ovale, which is a passage from the right into the left Auricle. It has a Valve upon it on the left side of the Septum Auriculatum immediately below the projection called Saccus Tubercle, it closes up commonly after Birth, but in some Adults it is found open; thro' this passage the Blood passes from the right Auricle into the left, & is prevented from returning by the Valve in the left Auricle. The great difference in the Vascular System of a Fetus from that of an Adult is, that it has a Circulation with a Placenta, for the Placenta must be considered as a part of the body of the Fetus. To begin at the Navel we trace the Umbilical Vein to the Liver & so on to the Heart. The reason why I don't go directly to the Ductus Venosus without uniting to the branch of the Vena Portarum, & why it mixes the Blood first with that brought from the Intestines, we don't know. In an Adult there seems to be a necessity for that Blood, which is to nourish the body, to under-
go a previous change by circulating thro' the Lungs, in the Fetus it would be useless, for it can have no Advantage from it. The Branches of the Aorta distribute the blood to all parts of the body, & a considerable quantity is also carried to the Placenta by the internal Glia Arteries: the Veins return the Blood to the Heart mixed with a considerable quantity of fresh Blood from the Placenta by the Umbilical Vein, & by the Ductus Venosus to the Vena Cava Inferior. We suppose that at least a third part of the whole quantity of Blood brought to the right Auricle by the Vena Cava passes immediately thro' the Foramen Ovale into the left Auricle & Ventricle, & so into the Aorta again: the rest of the Blood will pass from the right

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the right Ventricle into the Pulmonary Artery, & of this quantity probably one half passes thro' the Canal's Arterio-venous into the Aorta. Descends, so that not more than a third part of the whole quantity of it's body circulates thro' the Lungs to prepare the way, & keep the passages open. The Blood which passes thro' the Lungs is returned to the left Auricle by the Pulmonary Veins as in the Adult. The Size & Figure of the Fetus at different times of Uterine Gestation have been greatly disputed about by different Writers. They certainly vary much in different Species. A Fetus of the size of an Horse-bean has very little more than Head & Trunk, the head has two black spots which mark out the Eyes, the Trunk has four little nipples, which afterwards grow into Teats, & the Navel String is thicker. Short. Women generally miscarry in the 11th, or 12th week after Conception, reckoning from the last Menstruation. This is the time of more than 19 out of 20 Miscariages, & the Child is nearly always of the Horse-bean size: but then we sometimes find that Women miscarry at 6 or 7 weeks, & the Child is then of the Horse-bean size: and sometimes they miscarry at 11. or 12 Weeks, & the Child is two or three inches long. The fact is this, when the Conception is of the size of a Hen-bird, the Fetus is of the size of a Horse-bean. It comes to this size about the 6th, or 7th Week, at this time it frequently dies, as Fruit is blighted in the Blossom; the Woman having no bad Symptoms immediately arising goes on to the 11th, or 12th week with the dead Fetus in her womb, & then the Symptoms of Labour come on, & she miscarries the Fetus therefore comes away of the Horse-bean size, & is in reality no more than 6 or 7 weeks old. There are instances of a Child of the Horse-bean size coming away,

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away so late as at nine months, tho it had died at the end of the 6th or 7th week, & yet the Symptoms of Labour did not come on till the end of the 9th month. If a woman goes longer than the 11th or 12th week, she seldom miscarries, the fruit of her Womb carries then to have become so strong, as to be able to resist the blasting cause, & at the end of the 11th or 12th week, the Child is two or three fingers long: if it dies at this time & Labour comes on, then the Woman will miscarry, at the end of the 12th week, of a Child of this size, & this accounts for the other Variety at the usual time of miscarriage i.e. about the 11th or 12th week; but generally speaking, all miscarriages happen about the end of the 11th or 12th week, & the Child is of the size of a Horse bean, or as others call it, of the large Peaseworm. When the Child is of the Bean size, the Bowels are all covered in, & are not seen, but Dr Hunter once saw a Fetus of the size of a large Fly very distinctly every way without a magnifying glass, which the Mother was seen, was just four weeks old, it had no Navel String, its belly lay close in contact with the Secundines, & its excreta came out of its belly to form the Navel String, the Bowels were only covered by a transparent Membrane, thro which they appeared, the spinal Marrow was a distinct white Chord very plainly appearing thro the Vertebra.

The Secundines &c

Lecture 93

So much for the Foetus, & now return to the Secundines. In the first months of pregnancy there is a wonderful distance between the Amnion & the Chorion, the jelly between them is in great quantity & keeps them divided. The Ovary properly speaking is the Chorion & all its contents, the Decidua is plainly the inner surface of the Uterus, & always & separates from the Uterus, & comes away along with the other membranes. In the miscarriage of 11 or 12 weeks it is so much torn, that it ^{is} hardly ever distinctly seen; it covers the bottom & is reflected over it again, so that on one part the Vagina is covered with four membranes, the Amnion, the Chorion, the inner Lamella of the Decidua adhering to the outside of the Chorion, & the outer Lamella of the Decidua adhering to the inside of the Uterus all round. The first appearance in the Uterus after a Woman has conceived is a slimy Species or Membrane covering the Fundus Uteri without any sensible adhesion, & at the same time the Fundus Uteri rising out into an Effluvescence. These two parts unite from the Decidua, & between them lies the Vicula (pica) the Chorion with its contents. Dr Hunter once found the Decidua formed in the Uterus of a Woman tho' the Conception had not passed out of the Fallopian Tube. The Woman died from an internal flooding into the abdomen in consequence of the distended Ovary or Conception having burst thro' the Fallopian Tube into the Abdomen, when the Conception or Ovary passed out of the Fallopian Tube, it is lodged between the two Lamellae of the Decidua, & fixes itself somewhere to the Uterus, by means of the outer part, as it increases it projects farther & farther.

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The Secundines &c,

Farther into the Cavity of the Uterus, till it fills up the Cavity, as it takes the thinner part along with it, for the Decidua Reflexa, which is continued over it as far as the edge of the Placenta at which part it is reflected from that which adheres to the whole inner surface of the Uterus, so that that, which adheres to the Chorion & envelopes the Conception by adhering to it, is the inner Lamella, or reflection of part of the Decidua, as that which adheres to all the inner surface of the Uterus, is the outer Lamella; as the Conception encreases & brings the inner Lamella, more closely into Contact with the outer, they unite & become one Membrane; the outer Lamella of the Decidua as it is originally forming, must consequently have three perforations in it, one for the Mouth of the Uterus, & two for the Orifices of the Fallopian Tubes, because it is the inner surface of the Uterus itself, & these perforations are observable, in the Decidua of an early Abortion, while the two Lamellae have yet a Cavity between them from their not being united. If the outside of the Mass, which a Woman brings away from her Uterus, is covered with a shaggy Membrane, we may surmise, that it is the Conception covered by the Decidua or spongy Chorion, & that she has miscarried of a very early conception. The Father has a little bag at it's base, that contains a Fluid, which we shall call *Vesicula Umbilicalis* as from this bag an Artery & Vein go into the Bowels of the Fetus, in a little time the Bag becomes a white Speck, & the Artery & Vein become a white Thread, but they soon after disappear. These have been supposed by some that have observed the fact to be the

Umbilicus

The Secundines &c

Uterus & Alantois, which they most certainly are not, & The Chick in the Egg has a bag like this, which is carried in to the Bowels of the Chick gradually till it is entirely taken in, the Bag is very Vascular and from it then goes a very considerable artery into the Bowels —

Menstruation

The Menses generally appear at the age of Puberty, which is in the Country commonly at 15 or 16 years of Age, sometimes sooner, sometimes later. The quantity is not to be ascertained, as it varies greatly even in the same Woman at different times, some Women don't lose more than 30 each time, while others will Exij & perhaps 34xx & yet enjoy very good health. Generally speaking a Woman loses about 30 or 35 at each Menstruation. It was a general Opinion among the Antients that this Blood possessed a poisonous quality, & that when it was retained it poisoned the Constitution, & that the Woman ~~could~~ could not possibly recover her health without this Evacuation was restored. But now it is universally believed, that this Blood is common healthy full blood, & that the Effects ascribed to it by the Antients were merely Chimerical. The Retention of it is the Effect & not the Cause of ill health, for if a Woman recovers her health, she almost certainly has her Menstruation return. The Source of this Evacuation ^{every} ^{one} knew was from the Uterus, but as they found that some Women had something of the kind in Pregnancy when the Mouth of the Uterus is closed, they were staggered & believed that it came partly from the Vagina. This redundancy of blood may flow from any part of the

Menstruation

of the body, but in general it comes from the Arteries on the Fundus Uteri. The immediate cause of this Evacuation is most probably a fullness, tho' it cannot be determined by weighing the body. The way of accounting for it mechanically is very idle. It is said that the Uterus being the depending part, as the Veins not having Valves there, they will give way to the pressure of the Blood, but a woman would as certainly menstruate were she hung up by the heels, if she continued in good health. The Animal Functions cannot be explained upon Mechanical principles. A Woman having Organs capable of making more nourishment than is necessary for the support, & more being required to nourish the Fetus in Utero seems to be the Final Cause of this Evacuation. No other Animal has the Menstrues except a species of Monkey. The general Period is four Weeks, sometimes it happens a day or two sooner or later, & some women know even the very hour it will come on. The time of the Menstrues leaving a Woman is from 15 to 50 Years of Age. The greatest number of Women at 50 have no Menstrues, but in this as in other things there is great Variety. A Woman naturally, & we may say always is Obstinate, when she is with Child. The Stories of women having the full Menstrues all the time of Pregnancy are not true, there are however more, than, as even a Bleeding, but they are never like regular Menstrues.

Impregnation & Conception

Aristotle the first writer on Midwifery lived in the Center of the Greek Empire, & was a very respectable Midwife for the Age, he lived in
His Theory

Impregnation & Conception

His Theory of Generation was as follows. He says that the Male & Female Testicle both secrete seed, that the Male Semen is thrown into the Uterus at the time of Coition, & that the Female Semen passes into it at the same time from the Ovaries & mixes with the Male Semen, they two make the Child. That the Male Semen makes the Animal by a power inherent in itself, & that the Female Semen nourishes it all. Writers from Aristotle to Harvey, & his Predecessors agree. Fabricius ab Aquapendente only commented upon Aristotle, & Harvey seems to have gained his Lights from Fabricius, but tho' he had great Opportunities of examining Dees & different periods, after receiving the Book, he made out very little of Generation. He says that the first appearance of Conception in a Deer is, that a great quantity of blood is derived to the Womb, and the inside of the Womb is covered with a Membr. which afterwards makes the Chorion; he says that the Uterus has a power given it by the Creator to make the Child, perhaps as the Brain has a power of Thought, that it is not an inward power, natural to the Uterus & raised to Action by Coition, but it is a power given to the Uterus at that particular time by the immediate Hand of God Almighty. Senac & DeGuaaf then published the Doctrine of Man's being an Oviparous Animal, & that he is formed in an Ovary contained in the Ovaryum. Mr John Hunter thinks that if any Ovary comes from the Ovaryum, it is very small, and imperceptible, and he thinks that the Male Semen is injected into the Uterus in Coitus, & that a Fluid is thrown from the Ovaryum at the same time into the Uterus to mix with it, for he killed a Bitch

instantaneously

Impregnation & Conception

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instantaneously in Coition by running an Aole between the Ventrals of the Duck, & the Dog keeping on his Backs, he opened the Ditch and saw the point of the Penis within the Orifice of the Uterus, & the Semen come from it; and the Ovarium had discharged a Fluid into the Uterus; He likewise is of opinion that the Corpus Spermaticum is a Gland; & that Leuwenhoek believed that an Animalcule was thrown into the Mother by the Father, which grew up to a Tadpole at a Tadpole grows up to a Frog

Monsters

The Subject of Generation at present is not understood, and if we cannot account for the formation of a perfect Animal, we certainly cannot for Monsters. A very common Monster is a Child without a Brain, instead of it it has a bag of water; another common one is a Child born with its bowels hanging out of its Abdomen; & is the Child with a Glass Lip, the double Child & the Child with some super- & numerous parts, as Six Fingers &c. It was the common Opinion that Monsters were the Effect of the Mother's Imagination owing to her being frightened in her Pregnancy, as Monsters were supposed to be caused by their longing for some particular things. But Dr. Boerhaave with Winslow, that all Monsters are originally so formed, that they are never well formed Creatures at first, they were then hurt, & grow up Monsters in consequence of that hurt, for the Indians are all calculated to the deformity. Dr. Hunter deposited a Calf with two heads, & found that the Aorta sent off branches properly to both heads.

Abdomen - It sometimes

Flooding —

It sometimes happens that the Placenta fixes itself so low down, that it lies across the mouth of the Uterus, so that when the Os Tense dilates for Birth the Placenta separates, & its Vessels pour out a large gush of Blood. If the Fingers is introduced the Membranes are not to be felt, for it meets with nothing but Placenta. In this case the Membranes not being broken, the Woman will flood exceedingly, and if she is not delivered quickly, will die of flooding. All we can do is to endeavour to deliver her as soon as possible, and run the hand thro the Placenta, & break the Membranes to let out the Water. If she is delivered very soon there is a chance of her doing well; but commonly she is so much overpowered by the discharge that she sinks under it —

Retroversion of the Uterus

Sometimes the Fundus of the Uterus turns down behind & lies between the Os & Rectum, if pregnant as it increases it becomes fast locked, & pressing the neck of the Bladder against the Os Pubis it occasions Suppression of Urine; from this Complaint a young woman died, for there was no possibility of getting the Fundus up again —

The Fetus in Utero

Lecture 94th

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There are two questions agitated with respect to the Fetus, first whether there is a Circulation of Blood between the Mother & Fetus, Secondly, how is the Fetus nourished? whether by the Navel String, or by the Mouth, or both? In the first place the Vessels of the Fetus are not continuations of the Vessels of the Mother, there is no passage of red blood from the one to the other, for injections will not pass from one to the other - It is nothing surprising, that the Fetus should make red blood of itself independant of the Mother, for the Chick in the incubated Egg has thus proved evidently without the Mother - It is most probable that the juices which nourish the Child are carried from the uterus by absorbing Vessels to the Fetus - In the second place it has been said that the Fetus, in its early state, is nourished by the Navel String, & that afterwards when it comes to have a Mouth sufficiently formed, it is nourished by the Mouth, that is by swallowing the Liquid Amnion. It is most probable that it is nourished by thousands of Lymphatic Vessels, which absorb nourishment from the blood of the Mother, and carry it along the Navel String - It is true we can't see any Lymphatics running upon the Navel String, yet it is reasonable to conclude they do - An early Fetus cannot be nourished by the Mouth, its nourishment must be conveyed along the Navel String - If then it is sufficiently nourished by the Navel, why need it be changed for the Mouth? Besides the Liquid Amnion is not of a nutritious quality, it noway resembles the white of an Egg, for it is not coagulable by heat - And Hunter has seen a Fetus whose Intestine a little below the Duodenum was impervious and divided

The Fetus in Utero

and divided thro^o, as the other end began at some distance from this. —
D Cooper brought into the world a full grown Child without any Head,
Heart, Lungs, or Intestines: and a Ventricle was sent to the Royal Society
that was born without either Nose or Mouth, so that it is plain that the
Fetus is nourished by means of the Navel String, & not by the Mouth.

Diseases of Women.

An Impurged Pitymen is unnatural & monstrous; it is com-
monly not discovered till the time of the young Woman's being out of
Order. The Blood of the first, second, or third Period of Menstruation
is contained within the Vagina & the Uterus & makes a bag of fluid to be
felt pressing down towards the Vulva; this must be let out by a small
Cosical opening made where the part is thinnest, & the opening must
be kept open & dilated by a Sponge Tent. Dr Hunter saw a Woman that
had the sides of her Vagina grown together occasioned by Scurviness
from a Pocky Cause, the Surgeon with a Trocar let out near a large
wash-basin a Bacon of Blood, the thickness of Cream, the Orifice after-
wards closed & at the Month end the accumulated Blood was again
let out; inflammation from the distension came on & she died; if the
opening had been enlarged the first time, it is probable it would
have remained so, & the Woman have been saved. Where the Vagina
is too narrow, it must be dilated gradually by a Sponge Tent begin-
ning with small ones & increasing their size by degrees. Too short a
Vagina is incurable. The Muscles are under the immediate influence
of the Nerves, hence when a Woman is much affected in her Nerves, the Muscles
are likewise considerably affected. When a woman is ill, & the Nerves
don't

Diseases of Women,

don't make their appearance, we are not apt to expect any good Effect from the exhibition of Emmenagogues, or *Evacuans*, as they are called, nor is there any Medicine that has a Specific Tendency either to check, or promote them - we are to regard the ill health without having any regard to the Menstrues, for there is no Medicine that has any Effect determined to them in particular - we must always manage the general complaints without considering the particular One of the Menstrues, & the Moment that good health is established, the Menstrues will appear, or cease to be profuse, if they were so before - If the Woman has no Menstrues, or has too much, if her health is otherwise good, we should do nothing - It is the principal thing to study general health - when the Menstrues are going off too, if they are irregular, we should do nothing, for it would be absurd to endeavour to keep them up farther, than the time which Nature has set - The greatest part of the Diseases of Women, as the Cancers of the womb for instance, are apt to appear just after the natural time of the Cessation of the Menstrues, so that they suppose the disease to arise from their ceasing too soon, here too we should do nothing with respect to the Menstrues, but treat the other Complaint alone - The Cancer of the Womb however, we can do nothing at all for - Some Women have exceedingly painful Menstruation, & fever with it, they will be much better if they keep themselves quiet & very warm, particularly their feet, & when the Menstrues are much affected a Dose of Mithridate should be taken at night: a quarter of a pint of common Claret Sea-bath in a Morning, & half a pint of an Evening is of considerable service, & is a warm stomachick Bitter, & a little Uterine, if there is any such Medicine - Hysteria is, as Englished from the Greek, The Womb disorder: the most common Symptom of it is a rising in the Throat,

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Throat, The Greeks thought that the Worm was a distinct Animal endowed with locomotion, & would rise up in the Hypo-
stoma as to press upon the Trachea, & almost choke the Patient, they thought this Animal disliked Stinks, and therefore they attempted to drive it down to its proper place by applying Stinks to the Nose, such as Burnt Saffron &c, and to invite it down they fumigated underneath the Pelliculate with sweet smelling things the Bearing down of the Uterus they treated in a similar way, they applied Stinks below, & sweets above.

The Fluor Albus is not commonly to be considered as a Disease, for it seems to be natural in some degree to most Women. Women think that it is a heavy disease upon them, & that it drains away their strength, but they take the Effect for the Cause, their ill state of health is the cause of, & not owing to the Fluor Albus. Such Women are generally nervous, that is of an anxious mind, hurried with trifles, the alteration of the Weather has a great Effect upon them, & when they are vexed, the Drain is increased. We must attend to their general health and when advised direct them to use the Cold Bath, Exercise, Dry Diet, Bark, & such like, we should particularly insist upon cleanliness, for all internal Surfaces have their fluid increased from the stimulus of what is secreted, stagnating in them, they should wash themselves throughout with something as astringent, as Red Port or Senecio of Pines, but as these stain the Linen, it may be more agreeable to them to use an infusion of Green Tea Cold, which is sufficiently astringent, the Vagina should be washed with it by a Sponge fastened to the end of a Stick, rather than using a Syringe; or a little Alum may do, by this means

Diseases of Women.

means the discharge will be greatly diminished. Finding that the Cancer of the Uterus is preceded by the Flux or Albos, we should be rather backward in using astringent Medicines to restrain the discharge, for if it is a natural discharge from the constitution, they will be detrimental, by locking up the Humours.

There is a very common disease, the nature of which we are ignorant of, commonly attended with Flux or Albos, tho' sometimes without; it is an intolerable sharp itching about that part of the Vagina where the Uthra is, sometimes about the external parts of Generation, most commonly without pain, tho' the itching is most dreadful to be borne, when it is external, we direct Sulphur, Mercury, or washing the parts with Lacerat's Lotion sometimes does good, & cooling things also pursued, & often too without any good Effect at all. In two or three Cases, introducing a Bougie two or three times a day into the Uthra, & by that means keeping it upon the stretch for some little time has taken off the irritation & cured the complaint, in all Cases of this kind do well of themselves in time, they have never been known to bring on a Cancer or any other great disease. The Vagina & Uthra being united to the Bladder, there cannot be a Protrusion Uthra & protrusion of the Vagina without the Bladder being drawn down too, & indeed it comes really out of the body, & makes a part of the tumor out of the Labia. To introduce a Catheter, we must turn it just the contrary way from what we do in common, There are Tubercles often found in the Uthra, which are sometimes so numerous, & large, as to distort the Uthra considerably, we suppose them to be little Glands in the fleshy substance of the Uthra enlarged, & grown, Pankreas. They have no immediate tendency to Cancer, yet if they grow fast, they generally destroy the Patient by pressing the neighbouring parts.

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parts & bringing on ill health. They generally happen to young women. If we put the hand on the belly immediately after Delivery, we sometimes feel such Tumors in the Uterus pretty distinctly. If the Woman should conceive these Tumors are grown large, the Uterus irritated is so much that she always miscarries.

The Cancer of the Uterus is a very common disease. It is commonly preceded by bad Uterine purgation, Irregular Menstruation, Fluor Albus, Pains &c. And during the time of Menstruation great quantities of blood (clotted blood) come away, the strength fails, with loss of appetite & the colour changes to what the Ancients called Strablicious. The first stage may be called Scirrhous, for the Uterus enlarges very much, & grows very hard, as it proceeds the Fluor Albus grows very offensive, the Cancer ulcerates, & the discharge is intolerably offensive. Sometimes the Bladder & Rectum are eaten thro' from the Vagina or Uterus, & the Disease increases untill Death affords welcome relief to the miserable Patient. In this disorder the Cure, as in other Cancers, sometimes affords a little temporary ease, but never perfects a Cure.

Polyppi of the Uterus are of different consistencies, hard & soft, no Medicine will remove them, they sometimes will drop off of themselves, when they grow large, they bleed much, & so weaken the Woman & bring on Dropsy & Death. If they are tied, the Draining of Blood ceases immediately, the Woman regains her strength, & gets well presently. If possible therefore they should be tied, & if no part of the Uterus or Vagina is inclosed in the Ligature, as high up to the root as we can. Dr Hunter once tied one, & contrary to his expectation it gave the Woman pain at the time, & mortification came on the external & internal parts, & she died in a few days. Upon opening the body he found

Diseases of Women,

Found that a bit of the Uterus was tied instead of the Polypus, for the Polypus had dragged the Fundus Uteri down thro' the Os Tenuis, which it had dilated by its bulk, so that it laid in the Vagina as the root of the Polypus. The tying the Uterus was what gave the pain, we should prepare for tying then pull gently, & if it gives any pain it must leave off. For probably we shall have included a part of the Uterus, or of the Vagina, if it gives no pain we may venture to pull a little more, & so on more & more, & if it gives no pain at all, we may tie it tight, & be assured that all is right. After it is tied it shrivels up & is wad of a supply of juices, & drops off, when the Ligature comes away, tho' the Polypus remains, we may be certain that it does not adhere to any part of the Uterus, & we may extract it how we can. Monsieur Livault ties it with a piece of Wire, but a strong thread is better.

The Water of the Decapsy of the Ovarium, is sometimes in one, sometimes in a number of Cysts. Sometimes the Contents of the Cysts are Jelly. The Operation of cutting out the Decapsical Ovarium proposed by the French Surgeons is not practicable, for it don't adhere by a small Basis, but is united to the neighbouring parts.

Pregnancy
Lecture 95th

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The Woman whose Relations have had many Children who is healthy & who menstruates regularly is most likely to bear Children, as therefore should be chosen by the Man who wishes to have Children. It is a common opinion that a Woman cannot be with Child till she has once menstruated either for the first time or since the delivery of a former Child, but this is a Mistake. A Woman who lives quietly & with her Affections confined to one Man is most likely to be with Child and to go her full time, and for this reason it seems to be, that the Wives of Clergymen have so many Children. The most certain sign of Pregnancy is obstructed Menses, and if little shows happen more or then for a month after Obstruction & every day for instance, we may be pretty sure that she is with Child. Another sign is sickness at & Stomach, commonly in the Morning when she gets up, if she were to lie in bed all day she would not be sick in the least; these two are the chief Marks of Pregnancy. There are many others of less consequence; many Women become heated & dry & are costive. Many have heartburn & Colicky Complaints, & many feel their Breasts unusually filled & sometimes painful. In the third, but especially in the fourth Month the face becomes more plain, the Obstruction of the Menses continues, the sickness is either gone off gradually, or is lessened, and the Areola round the Nipple enlarges and changes to a darker colour: about this time they quicken and increase in Bulk, as the Rays open behind something warm should lie upon the Back, then to defend it from Cold. In common the Sickness does not come on till the end of the first Month & by this Month is gone. The Motion within the belly as if the Child moved is very uncertain, it comes on generally

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generally however at 12, or 13 weeks, & increases as the Child grows stronger but some Women never feel it all. We cannot tell precisely whether a Woman is with Child except by examining her, and even not then unless we are much experienced. It is more difficult to tell it in early Pregnancy, and we may be deceived by the substance of the Uterus being enlarged into a Tumor, but generally speaking if a Woman is pregnant we shall feel the Uterus about the size of a Goose, softer & more opening than it is when unimpregnated. When she is not very big, we can generally move the tumid Uterus from side to side by our hands upon her Belly, as it increases it becomes fixed. We should rather put off Examination as far as possible, that we may be enabled to determine more easily & certainly, without submitting the Woman to this disagreeable circumstance again. The Time of Puckering is, one may say, always the same, & always has been the same. The time of Labour is nine Calendar Months. The exact time of Conception is very uncertain, as it may happen on any day of the Interval between the last day of the Menstrues leaving, and the day they are inspired. But the safest way is to reckon from the last day of Menstruation, for then the Woman will be prepared should it happen sooner. I Plenter thinks that a Woman may go a little more than 10 Months, but that he can go farther. This however is nothing surprising, for Cows very often bear a foal eight or a Month, &c. P. Pembroke had a Mare which went 13 Months. Sometimes a Child is born at 8 Months, and a Woman is more apt to come at 8 Months after her first Child, than afterwards. It was an opinion with Hippocrates that a 7 Months Child was more likely to live than an 8 Months Child, reasoning from the old Doctrine of Odd Numbers, but certainly it is the reverse, they hardly ever live when born at less than 8 Months. The general management of a pregnant Woman is to let

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to let her live nearly as at another time, to avoid all fatigues, & this last should be observed in our Medicinal treatment for any complaint. If she gets too full & is heated, we should take away 3 or 4 ounces of blood, & a little of any gentle Laxative should be taken for the usual constipation which is apt to bring on the Piles, & a Woman may miscarry at any time in the 9 months, but generally does at 3 months. The Miscarriage is always to be left to its self, for the flooding will bring on fainting & the fainting will stop it. Women likely to miscarry should be put upon the proper plans how to proceed. Immediately after the first leaving of the menses, we should attend to the general health; if inclined give Bath, diet the Cold Bath &c. The greatest number of miscarriages will be found to happen in Melancholy & Nervous Habits. When the flooding is very violent, Vinograd & other Astringents are commonly applied to the Loins & Os Sacrum, & supposed to be of Service, but it almost always stops of itself. The Woman is generally left very much reduced, but she soon gains strength again, & whenever a Woman seems to die from flooding she will be found to have died from some other weakness of Constitution unless in the latter months of Pregnancy. A common accident in Pregnancy is the Retrocession of the Uterus, the Fundus turns down into the hollow of the Os Sacrum, & the neck of the Bladder being compressed there is a stoppage of Urine, which is sometimes fatal, & the Urine is obstructed in consequence of the Protrusion being pressed upon. If taken in time, the Woman may be saved. We must draw off the Urine, empty the Bowels by a Clyster, & then put the Woman into such an Attitude as to make the Shoulders depending, & the Thighs high, introduce a Finger into the Vagina & another into the Rectum, & endeavour to work up the Fundus by degrees, & if we are so lucky as to get it right again, she must be laid down carefully so that it may not go back again. The woman

Petroversion of the Uterus

Woman should be kept quiet in bed for some time. If the Case is very bad that we cannot get it up again, nor draw off the Urine, & the Woman is in danger of dying from the Suppression, it might be perhaps advisable to thrust a Trocar from the Vagina into the Uterus to draw off the Liquor Amnii, and produce Miscarriage.

Labour

A natural labour is generally best left to itself. A woman commonly falls into Labour, when her Reasoning is up. The Pains do not begin in the Uterus, but in the Back, Thighs, Thighs, & Region of the Uterus. They come and then go off again, & every succeeding time they return at shorter Intervals there is a discharge from the Uterus, which is a Mixture of Blood, & the loosened Jelly, that stopp'd up the Orifice. And when we see this discharge, there is hardly any doubt of the Woman being in Labour. The Membranes commonly do not break till the Pains have continued a considerable time, & just before the Child is born. Sometimes the Pains are such as to be mistaken for the Cholic. If an opening of the Belly ensues, it is better, as it will make room for the Child to pass down, & indeed we should always give a Glyster if she has not lately had a Stool. The time of Labour is very different, as it is the first, or a second Child, for the first Labour is more difficult and longer, especially in a Woman advanced in Life, for then the parts are not so yielding. In common it does not last more than 12 hours, sometimes 24, & sometimes more. And there seems to be something periodical in Labour, happening commonly at the distance of 12 or 24 hours after the first attack of the pains. If the Child lies right, & every thing goes on well, The less we do the better, untill when the Child is going to be born. It is

Labour

It is a bad Method to use any Cordial in the time of Labour, we should only give something cooling, as a Bason of Water Gruel without Wine, or any other such Liqueur, for we must prevent heat & fever, which will certainly do harm. And to hinder the Woman growing uneasy on account of her being in pain, & not yet delivered, we must tell her, she is not in Labour, but that her pains are something like it. The quidding Pains do nothing, but when the forcing pains come on the os Tinea dilates, the parts stretch, & the Delivery is at hand, & then we may assist, we can further the Dilatation of the os Tinea without Tiring it. If the Membranes are not broken, & there is no flooding, we should do nothing, if the Membranes have been broken for some time, or if there is a flooding, we should then examine to know the state of things, & how to expedite the Labour, for if anything is unnatural, as the Child not presenting right, we have only occasion to turn it, & the sooner this is done the better, that is, before the Utterus is contracted. When we examine the Woman who will be in bed lying on her left side with her body bent, her knees bent, & her back turned towards us. In this posture we can more easily examine with the finger of our right hand, & examining from behind will give the Woman less offence than examining before. When we find that the Orifice of the Womb is sufficiently opened, and the Child ready to pass down, we should order the Woman to lie, for if she is put to bed sooner, she tumbles the bed in her pains, and grows tired of it, and uneasy.

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Labour

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In a Natural Labour we should do nothing, but direct how it may be gone thro' with Decency, & so that the Bed may be kept clean. The Waters & other Discharges must be kept soaked up from time to time with Cloths. The Woman always complains of violent pain in her Back, & finds great relief from pressing with the hand or rubbing the Back, & this should be done with a finger or two may be introduced to keep the passage of the Child when it is coming down, by opening the fingers the lower parts may be opened, which will relieve a pain, & promote the birth. This thing may be done when there is any little difficulty of the Child's coming thro' the Vagina, otherwise we should rather seem to assist, than do any thing in reality. When the Child is going to be born, just when the Head is coming down, the upper leg should be kept from the Other, & we should keep the Vices asunder by a large pillow rolled up hard, and placed between them to give room. We must endeavour to persuade the Woman not to bear down too forcibly for fear of the Child's Head tearing the Perineum, which is more likely to happen in the first Labour, & as the Head is coming out we should support the Perineum. When the Head is delivered all the danger is over, but we would not chuse to leave the Child so, as therefore we must assist the Pains by pulling gently, & passing the finger up to clear the Shoulders from the Uterus that is now contracting on the neck, the Child naturally first comes down with its face directly backwards, then as it comes farther down it turns so that one Shoulder is directly backwards, which perhaps may lacerate the Perineum if we do not support it, or an elbow or a hand may do it by getting

by getting into an awkward situation, when the Child is born
 we tie the Gavel Spring then stripe the Spring to get the blood
 up, & cut it off a little above the ligature, & wrap the end next
 the Placenta in a Cloth, to keep the Bed clean, & the Child
 should be put into a Flannel receipt, we should now feel
 the Abdomen to know whether there is another Child or not, & at the
 same time we may pump down the flaccid Uterus, then we should
 tuck in the Bed Cloths, so as to gird the Abdomen, which will
 assist in keeping off the faintness, that is apt to happen when
 the pressure is taken off from the Abdomen, & it will help the
 contraction of the Uterus in some measure, & thereby the Expulsion
 of the Placenta, If the Placenta does not come away readily we may
 assist it by pulling the Spring gently, & steadily, but the less we do
 the better provided all is safe. If the Gripping pains come on, it
 is a sign that the Placenta will soon come away: If we pull at all,
 we should pull downwards so as to avoid the Symptom, viz of the Puls-
 is; Sometimes the Orifice of the Uterus is contracted, & prevents it
 coming down, here we may assist by dilating the Orifice with the Finger
 By pulling very gently we can generally peel away the Placenta &
 the Membranes uniformly, & all may be brought away together when
 all is over we should roll up the Sheets laid on the Bed to confine the
 wet & every thing else, & draw them away, for if we draw them away
 without first rolling them up, we shall throw the Clot of Blood into
 the Bed, & then when all is taken away, warm Cloths must be
 applied below to inhibit the discharges & keep the Bed dry, a very
 little Cordial should be given least the Woman should be inclined
 to heat, & faint. For time of Labour a Woman is apt to vomit, but
 seldom,

seldom to purge, so that we should be constantly prepared, for the occasion is always sudden. Some are apt to shiver, but this is of no consequence. Cramps are sometimes very perplexing but never do any mischief. If there is considerable faintness then something a little cordial must be allowed. After Delivery the common Accidents are Fainting & Bleeding. Fainting is not of much consequence, unless it is occasioned by violent Bleeding. The after pains are occasioned by the contraction of the Uterus, & after a considerable after pain there is a large clush of blood Clotted, for the Clotted Blood is thereby forced off from the ends of the divided Arteries & Veins. When the Bleedings are in the natural way we should do nothing, but if they are very violent, we should give an opiate. The great Bleedings used to be owing to the injudicious Method of bringing away the Placenta & Membranes. We can introduce the hand, and by getting on their outsides, we may peel off the Membranes & Placenta, but this should not be done unless the violent flooding makes it absolutely necessary, for the introduction of the hand so high up into the Belly even to the Cerviculus Cordis for the placid Uterus flies before the hand, hurts the Woman exceedingly, & the Arm does so much injury to the Bladder that she ever after finds the inconvenience of it. Generally the Placenta will come away of itself in a few hours, sometimes it remains a day or two, sometimes a part only separates, & the case being pluggish the risk is danger from the Bleeding. Then we must get the Placenta away as soon as we can. If an hour after delivery there is no sign of its coming away, we should pass the hand up to favour its separation. In difficult Labours, we are to do exactly as in the natural labour, only we must endeavour

endeavour especially to keep up the Spirits. They who have Severe Labours never have a Turn after it. If the Woman is advanced in Life, & the parts are so rigid that they do not stretch, if we shove the Mouth of the Uterus up over the Child's head, it will come down into the Vagina very well. If the Child's head is large, or if the Pelvis is narrow, the Bones of the Skull will naturally give way at the Sutures, & slip over each other, & thus the head will adapt itself in form to the Pelvis, & come down. If we were to attempt this ourselves, the sudden Alteration which necessarily produce will kill the Child; the gradual Natural Alteration never does any harm, so that we should wait with patience, & we shall be surpris'd to see what great things Nature will accomplish. The Natural & most common position is with the head downwards, & face backwards. If the head comes down with the face forwards, some advise us to turn it to the Natural position, but it should be left to come as it is, & care should be taken to support the Perineum against the great press; we that the hind head will make as it comes down. If the head is bent backwards so that the face presents, it lies very badly, nevertheless it is better to let it come as it is, for whatever we do does considerable injury: say to the Mother, especially if we use Instruments. We should not endeavour to turn the Child & deliver by the feet, as is directed in their Cases. The best Rule is when the Head presents to let the head come as it will. Sometimes the Breech presents either with One or both feet downwards. If the feet come down, we must deliver by the feet, if the Breech alone presents, we must let it take its own way as it is. It is best always when we can to avoid delivering by the feet, espec: if the head sh^d. happen to be a large One, for as the head will come out last, as the Breech being comes into the World before it, it will be compressed by the head, & if the head sh^d. remain for some time in this position, it will compress the Stomach so long against the sides of the Pelvis as to kill the Child, by stopping the Circulation, & this seems to be a common cause of the Death of Infants. It is better to let the Child come down by the Breech, for the passage will

is so debilitated by Nature as to let all pass readily & safely, as if we are obliged
 to deliver by the feet at any time, it is better to wait till the passage is suffi-
 ciently debilitated of itself, before we attempt delivery at all. The other position
 mentioned in Authors are probably without foundation, as when the Back
 of the Belly, or one side, or an Arm, or a Leg present, Dr. Hunter says, he never
 saw one of these, y^t a hand lie on the head as it presents, we should push it
 up by carrying the Arm round on the proper side close to the body, in doing
 this we must take the opportunity of a Relaxation. Sometime the Tracheal
 String comes down immediately upon the breaking of the Waters, as it
 is in the Womb before the Child. This is a dangerous case for the head as it
 comes down will compress the String & probably occasion Death. We must
 endeavour at the time of Relaxation to slip it up either with the finger, or
 the handle of a Spoon &c, but this will be difficult on account of the slippi-
 ness of the parts, for when we have got it almost up, it will adhorn down
 again perhaps. If we cannot get it up, we are directed to turn the Child & deli-
 ver by the Feet, but we should rather let it take its chance as it is, for if
 we turn it, the head will necessarily be the last to come out, & then the force
 used to draw it out will be sufficient to kill the Child independ: of the compression,
 more especially if the head be large or the Pelvis a narrow one. As the Mother
 always runs some risk from turning the Child, for the Uterus is injured by
 it, or perhaps ruptured, which last once happened to Dr. Hunter. In other
 cases we must turn the Child, but it must be done with extreme great
 caution, as if a forcing pain comes on we should lie by till the pain is over,
 & then proceed. Dr. Smellie directed it to be done by thrusting up the head
 in the time of a pain too, in quest of the Feet, lay hold of them & draw 'em down.
 But in the time of a pain the Uterus contracting & being pressed on very forcibly
 by the Abdominal Muscles, we shall stand a chance of rupturing the Uterus, espe-
 cially if we use the same force that is commonly met on these Occasions. Very
 little force need, therefore should be used, we should gradually introduce the
 hand at the time of Relaxation, & if a pain comes on we should keep our
 ground.

ground & lie by, when the pain is gone off we may go higher & so proceed without any regard to the head or lower parts of the Child till we get pretty high up, then we must feel for the feet, & examine how they are situated with respect to the body, & get both if possible. If a pain should come on we must lie still & not quit ^{our} hold; by gently pulling by the feet the other parts of the Child will follow round, & a very small degree of force will turn it. If the Flooding continues with violence, for it is for flooding that the Child should be turned, we must go on gently pulling in the direction of the Pelvis, when the legs are pretty low down we must feel for the Arms & get them down by turning them forward & above upon the sides of the body. If it is the first Child, or if the Woman has a narrow Pelvis, so that we imagine she can't be delivered naturally in a very little time, we must deliver first by turning the Child gently, as well as pull down. When it is born we must attend to it immediately, to see, if it is Alive, & if there is any possibility of recovering it tho' it has no pulse, we should use some Stimulus, a very warm Cloth should be applied all over the Stomach, perhaps the Child may upon this give one Sob, & we want of some Stimulus to excite Inspiration. I may not inspire again, we should therefore put a little Hardshorn upon the nose & Lips, so that it may be drawn in by the Sob, which will irritate the Surge & excite them to Inspiration, and then the Child will recover, but if nothing of this kind is used, the Child hardly ever gives a Second Sob. It is a common thing to blow into the Mouth, & so into the Lungs, but it is always ineffectual. Every thing should be done gradually & softly in Indiscreet, & if the Child's head should lodge on the Os Pubis, we must feel it, & always take care to support the Perineum against the pressure of the head, or any other part that presses it.

Labour

Lecture 97th

There are two Cases which are very alarming, viz. Flooding & Convulsions. Flooding is commonly owing to a Separation of the Placenta & Membranes from the Uterus, & therefore a Woman often rats out in Labour with a pretty smart Flooding, which however abates. We should keep her cool, that the Flooding may not be encouraged & the Labour pains will generally come on in a little time & Delivery soon follow. If the Placenta grows root the Mouth of the Uterus, the Case is the worse, because the pressure from above cannot dilate the Orifice, but as the Orifice grows loose, the Placenta separates there, & the divided Vessels will afford a plentiful Flooding which must continue untill the Woman is delivered, & the Uterus has room to contract & stop it. & as the Placenta hinders the pressure from dilating the Orifice, of course it prevents Delivery. In this Case, we must thrust our hand thro' the Mass of Placenta & break the Membranes so that the Child may be born, if there is a Relaxation at the Orifice of the Uterus. If the Woman has sufficient strength to ret up the pains & exclude the Child of hers self we may do nothing farther, but if she is too low from the Flooding, we must deliver her without Delay, for untill she is delivered the Flooding will not stop, & generally speaking, after we have delivered her, she will die from the great Loss of Blood which must necessarily follow. Convulsions are very dreadful, Sometimes they happen in pregnancy, & sometimes in Labour. In the first Sort, there commonly happens a little something to the Brain, so that she does not recover her Senses perfectly, sometimes for a day or two there is an increasing Sort, & they have the Senses worse every Time, after entirely ceasing they often leave the

Labour

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the disturbance in the senses for a month, The Woman may die of the Fits without ever being in Labour. This Complaint not only happens to Women who have had Fits before in their lifetime, but to those also who never have, so that it seems to be owing to a Cause connected with the Nerves, and appears to arise from some irritation upon the Nervous System. In Labour it is a common thing to say, that these Fits are the Death of the Child, but this is without foundation. For we see living Children born as often after them as when they have been none. In general in these Fits the Face becomes very full of blood, and tho' there seems to be a great Division of it to the Head, yet upon examining the Brain after Death it always appears perfectly sound & in a natural state. They happen to Women who are full, & not to those who are empty, but it is sight to take away a pretty considerable quantity of Blood if the Woman can bear it, Left fullness should occasion it, and this perhaps may prevent and turn an opiate too seems to have some effect in moderating them. Sometimes they are preceded by a small headache & pain shooting from the pit of the Stomach thro' the back, at other times there is no warning at all. When the Labour comes on in these Cases we should endeavour to break the Waters to prevent the Distension of the Uterus from producing Irritation upon the Nerves, which possibly it might do so as to increase the Tendency to these Fits. When she is delivered, the Case must be left to Nature, and generally speaking there is never a return after Delivery; but we may give an opiate to quiet her a little. There hardly ever happens a case in which the Succession of Pains they must meet

Labour

must never be used till the Child's Head is got down into the Cavity of the Pelvis, for we never should attempt to get them up into the Utterus, as some do. We can only use them when the Child's Head presents, and they save the use of hands, when we cannot get our hands on the side of the head. We should pull with them at the time of a Pain, & till then they should not be cloed upon the Head. We must be exceedingly cautious in using them, otherwise they will hurt the head, and the Mother, so much as to endanger both. A Case favourable for the Forceps is a painfull long Labour, & this there remains but little to be done, yet the Woman is too weak & low to do it. Now we can finish it easily & expeditiously by drawing the head gently down. If the Woman is already very weak from flooding, which is continuing still tho' the head is very low down, we must have recourse to this Operation. We must introduce first one blade, where there is room, & work it over the Ear, or Temple if we can't get it over the Ear, & then do the same with the other blade, then when a pain comes on, we must pull gently, for the pain will act in concert with our Effort, to bring the head down. When we have got the head pretty low, if there is strength left to produce sufficient pain, we should let the Child into the World; we must pull to the last, but in this as in every other Case we must take care to avoid a rupture of the Perineum, & therefore we should pull the head forward, from the Perineum. It is sometimes necessary to open the Child's head, and deliver by the Crutch. We should never have recourse to this, unless when we see, that the Mother will die in all human probability, as well as the Child, provided we do

Labour

We do not save her at the expense of the Child, for the Pelvis is sometimes so narrow, or the head so very large, that it is impossible, that it should come down into the Cavity of the Pelvis. It should never be done, but as the result of a Consultation, for we might thro' Fatigue on our sides determine upon it, when the Case is not so dangerous, but that the Child may be born alive, if we wait with Patience. The best way of opening the head, is to do it with the proper Sutures, if possible by thrusting them in at a Suture, after having made a sufficient opening by turning them round & opening them a little, we must introduce the hook of the Crutche, & turn it round & round within the skull to break the Brain all over it, by catching the Pia Mater we can draw it out, with the hook, & a great part of the Brain along with it. All this should be done with Caution, the fingers should be just put up to feel the Situation of the head & Sutures, & to guide the point of the Scissors, & we should open the Scissors so that none of the Utterus may get between the Blades. The head being emptied as it were of its Contents, the pains will in five or six hours shove the Bones over one another, so that the Head will have its Bulk diminished & descend: We may fix the hook of the Crutche on the inside of the Bone, & with the fingers of the other hand opposite to it on the other side of the bone pull gently to bring the head down. For the hook generally comes on thro' the bone & sometimes breaks quite out, so that the fingers will be usefull to prevent its hurting the Utterus. When there are Twins, they commonly come, one with the head presenting, the other with the feet & Buttocks. after one is

Labour

One is born, if no second pains come on of the pressing kind in an hour or two, we should break the Waters, & then the Child will come away.

A Dead Child is born in the same manner as a living one, & requires no difference in practice. We should not think of doing any thing because we are sure of doing no mischief to the Child, for whatever we do is dangerous to the Mother. The most dreadful case of all is the Eruption of the Uterus. It is an accident that sometimes happens of itself, & sometimes from the late used in Delivery; then it signifies nothing what we do, for the Woman must die. The Child can only be taken out of the Abdomen either by the hand introduced into the Uterus, & thrust thro' the Sacrotum into the Abdomen, or by cutting it out of the Abdomen. But do it which way we will, we shall find all Circulation to have ceased thro' the Navel String & the Child dead. It is better therefore to leave the case to itself, until God pleases to relieve the Woman. In Labour it shall happen that all of a sudden in a violent pain the Woman shall feel something give way, and upon examination, we cant find any Child in the Uterus, but upon examining the handsound, we feel a laceration, & thro' that we feel the intestines, & perhaps the Child. This accident once happened to D Hunter, while he was turning the Child, & was duly kept away from him thro' the lacerated Uterus, & got out of reach. When the Placenta does not come away immediately, we should never use much force for fear of pulling the Tunicus Uteri down, & involving it. This Involvement will sometimes happen naturally, for the Mass of Placenta may be thrust down by the efforts, & instead of separating from, will bring down the Tunicus along with it. In both Cases there will be a large Mass for

Sumner

Labour

Turn out at the Vagina, the lower part made by the Placenta, and the upper part by the Fundus, we must separate the Placenta, and membranes off from the Uterus, and carry the Fundus up with the hand so high into the Abdomen as to place it in it's natural Situation lest any part of it should remain inverted. It should always be done as soon as possible, for when the Uterus is contracted, and got thick & hard, it will be more difficult if not quite impracticable when the Fundus remains inverted, it commonly kills the Woman, in the space of a few months or a year, there is such a continual draining of blood from the inverted part

The Case of an Extra-Uterine Fetus cannot be assisted, it must always be left to itself. If an Abscess should form to the Bones come away, we would naturally dilate the opening to make way, for the discharge of the Fetus. The Woman who has one of these dead Extra-Uterine Fetuses within her may bear again in the mean time

Treatment after Birth

Lecture 9th
of the Mother

We should watch her very carefully, as if she is well at the end of five days, she runs but little risk. Generally speaking the after-pains come on soon after Birth, but they seldom come on at all after the first Child. They seem to be the Effect of the Contraction of the Uterus to drive off the coagulated Blood & we should do nothing for them, except indeed when they are very violent, we may give an opiate & Laceration of the Perinaeum is of no consequence unless the Perinaeum is torn, for if that is torn there is always an incentive of Faces, remaining. Stitches in this Case are of no service, as they never hold, for lacerated flesh will always suppurate, so that do what we will, the Ulsers & Abscesses will be always laid into one. The rupture of the Bladder never heals up, but remains open into the Vagina, which is continually irritated by the constant dribbling of the Urine thro' the opening & the Bladder will suppurate. From time to time, it will remain fistulous. If there is any Gravel in the Bladder, the Child in passing down will bring the Bladder against it & by pressing them against the os Pubis so that it will suppurate, and become fistulous by this means. In this Case likewise we can be of no Service. The great Thing of all independent of the Accident of Labour is the Child bed Fever. It commonly comes on before the time of the coming on of the Milk, & when it is attended with excruciating pains in the Head & Limbs it is very dangerous. It does not happen from the Delivery, for those that have severe Labours never have it. The Woman must be kept warm, & the body kept open, in 24 hours it will generally go off of itself, if any thing else that we can do could be of

Treatment after Labour of the Mother

be of no Service; The Belly & Breasts will swell, but the Swelling will go away of itself. It is not the Nature of the Fever, but the Nature of the Constitution that can't bear fever at this time which kills women are liable to Hemiplegia at this time, but it is not owing to the Milk falling on particular parts as has been conjectured. Some are attacked with Madrig's. The generality of these Cases do well of themselves. The Inflammation & Swelling of the Thigh & Leg do well with Bleeding & an Antiphlogistic Regimen. If other Complaints happen at this time, they must be treated as in common, as for instance, if there is an Ague, we must give BARK.

Of the Child

We should attend to the first Nostril & Urine, & if none come owing to Imperfection, we must make a passage. If there is no Gut going down into the Pelvis, the Case is irretrievable, & Death will ensue, for we can do nothing. A few hours after Birth, a Child's Head is apt to swell up into a Tumor. It is an Extravasation of Blood, but it never should be opened, for it always goes away itself. The second is that a Child is liable to require nothing to be done for it. The little Breasts of the Child are apt to inflame & swell, but they never suppurate, they always get well of themselves or with a little poultice, & when getting well, a thick white substance may be squeezed out of the Nipples. The Red Gum requires nothing nor does the Thrush more than keeping the Mouth clean, for if we take it off it grows again, but it will of itself gradually get well, & when it is going away there come little Eruptions about the Arms, which Nurses call the Thrush going thro' the body. Children are very

of the Child

are very liable to sore eyes, but this requires nothing than keeping them washed clean - If it arises from the Mother having a Gonorrhoea then Mercurials must be given - Gripes & Colic require hardly any thing, but Rhubarb or Magnessia to keep the prima Via clear - It is a good way to insulate the Child at the Breast while it is very young before the time of Teething - At the time of Teething it should not be ventur'd on - The Scabby Skin is a Symptom of the Teething, & leaves the Child gradually as it grows up - It is best to bring the Child up by the Breast, & the Woman that suckles it should not, if we can choose, menstruate while she gives Suck - The Rickets are to be treated by Cold Bathing, The Method of managing the Club Foot is to roll it in its proper position - When there are a number of Twines of the Intestines out in the Navel String, they cannot be reduced by an Operation similar to that of the Strangulated Hernia, for they adhere to the inside of the String - Sometimes the Placenta degenerates into a Mass of Hydatids, but we now & then see Hydatids come away when a Woman has never conceived

De. 2th

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On Embalming

Lecture 99th

Being Supplement to 81st Lecture

after the Death of an Animal the body soon becomes putrid, and is in time totally dissolved by Putrefaction. It has been said that the Egyptians when they embalm dead bodies, pick out the Brain thro' the Nose with a Hook, but this seems too absurd. A Mummy brought from abroad, and lately carried to the Museum at Cambridge, which the Dr saw, appeared much as if it had been decayed in the Wind in cold Weather next to the freezing point. In Lydia they prepare them by burying them in the Hot Sand, & which the Dr tho' he never has intends to try by keeping a Limb in warm Sand. From the Dissection of an Egyptian Mummy belonging to the Royal Society, it appeared before Dr Hunter, his Body & others, not to be an human body; it is true, there were the Bones, but they were covered with Linnen dypt in Tar, which by Compression was made in Shape like an human body, & it was evident there was not any Muscular Flesh.

To Embalm a body properly, you must first get rid of the

of the

On Embalming

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of the Animal juices, and when the flesh is dry, it must be impregnated with something that will resist putrefaction. You should always take care, when you intend to Embalm a body, to have the following things ready, Viz. Ol. Turbith. Oij Turbith Vint ℥i or ℥ss , Vermillion ℥x . Nit. Vin. Rect. in Camph. Oij or more Rosin ℔x . Rect. Oij . Camphor ℔i , These three last should be powdered & mixed. Ol. Norismain Oij , Ol. Chamam ℥ij Ol. Lavend ℥ij , and Paris Plastres about ℥i or a Bag of which weighing ℥i costs. ℥i or ℥ss . As soon after the Body is dead, as it is decent, or as soon as you can prevail on the Friends, is the time for Embalming, & always before Putrefaction begins. Every Subject that is capable of recovery after drowning &c. & Hunter thinks, have their Limbs flexible, & that a Rigidity is a certain sign of Death, you ought always to wait for that. To begin, you should descent down to the Inguinal Artery, midway between the Anterior Superior part of the Spine of the Os Ilium, & the Symphysis of the Os Pubis, and inject into it Ol. Turbith with Turbith Vint & Vermillion / first squeezing

On Embalming,

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squeezing out a little of the Blood) and keep continually
syringing Till you have filled the body, or till it be all
over of a reddish hue. Having thus revised preparation
you should let it remain twelve hours or more, after
which you are to open the body in the usual manner, &
take out all the viscera of the Thorax & Abdomen. (Not that
the Aorta, the Vena Cava, or the two Subclavianes or the
Trachea, but leave the extremity of the Aorta & any part
of the Contents of the Pelvis. Make an Aperture in the
Small Intestines about the Jejunum & squeeze out the
Contents of the Stomach, Duodenum, & into it & tie up
the Visceris. Squeeze all the different viscera well & dry
them with dry cloths. Empty the Bladder & Uterus, and
take out the Kidneys. You should employ a full
heat in getting out the Blood & Moisture from the
body by striking it beginning at the head & going to the
extremities, as the Brain will be well defended from Air
you may leave that in. Then inject the ascending Aorta
tying up the descending Aorta, & also tie up the two main
illary Arteries. Inject with the first Syringe of Turbith
& after that strong Spirits of wine, & Carniphor. This being
done inject the descending Aorta tying the Epigastric Arteries
first

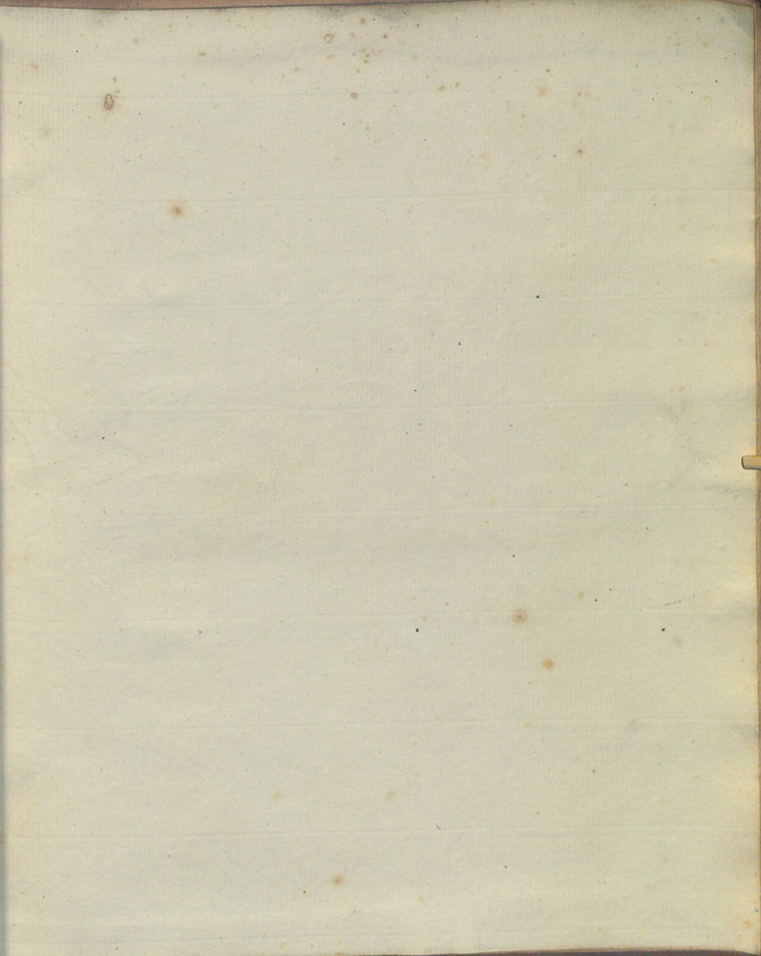
On Embalming

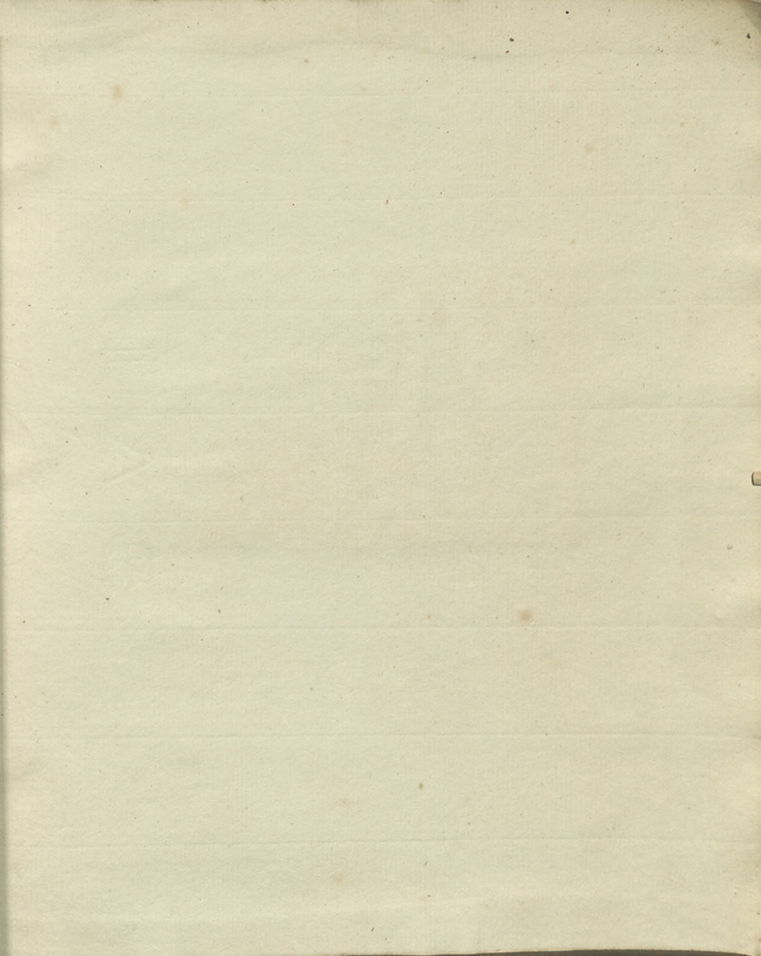
First with \mathcal{O} Turbith, then strong \mathcal{P} of wine & Camphor
 then inject the Heart, Lungs, & rest of the Viscera with \mathcal{O}
 Turbith & \mathcal{P} of wine & Camphor. Put a pipe into the
 Superior Invention Artery, & tie the Inferior Invention Artery
 Calices, & by injecting as before you fill the Viscera of the
 abdomen, the Kidneys are to be injected by the Emulgent
 aromatic Herbs in the body are of no use, as \mathcal{D} Hunter
 thinks, Vegetable Substances do not resist putrefaction. The
 Cavities are to be stop'd with the Powder, viz. Resin, Nutt &
 Camphor, as the urine issues with it water grows to putrefaction
 you are to strew some of the Powder into the Trunk, & then
 put a Shadern of Lincus & so on, continually putting the
 Powder between every part. Having thus nearly filled
 the body, you are to sew it up neatly, beginning at the
 Neck, when you come to the Trunk to pour in a Boddle of
 \mathcal{P} of wine & Camphor upon it Powder, & after that to put in
 some Essential Oil, then more Powder & sew it body completely
 up. But if Mouth & Nose with Sponge wet in \mathcal{O} Turbith
 & \mathcal{P} of wine & Camphor, & pour some down the Throat
 & Esophagus, & then stuff up the Mouth & Nose with Powder
 & afterwards put in some Essential Oil; then do the ears in the
 same manner. Take out the humours of the Eye by cutting
 in at the upper part of the Eye & then queering out the
 humours.

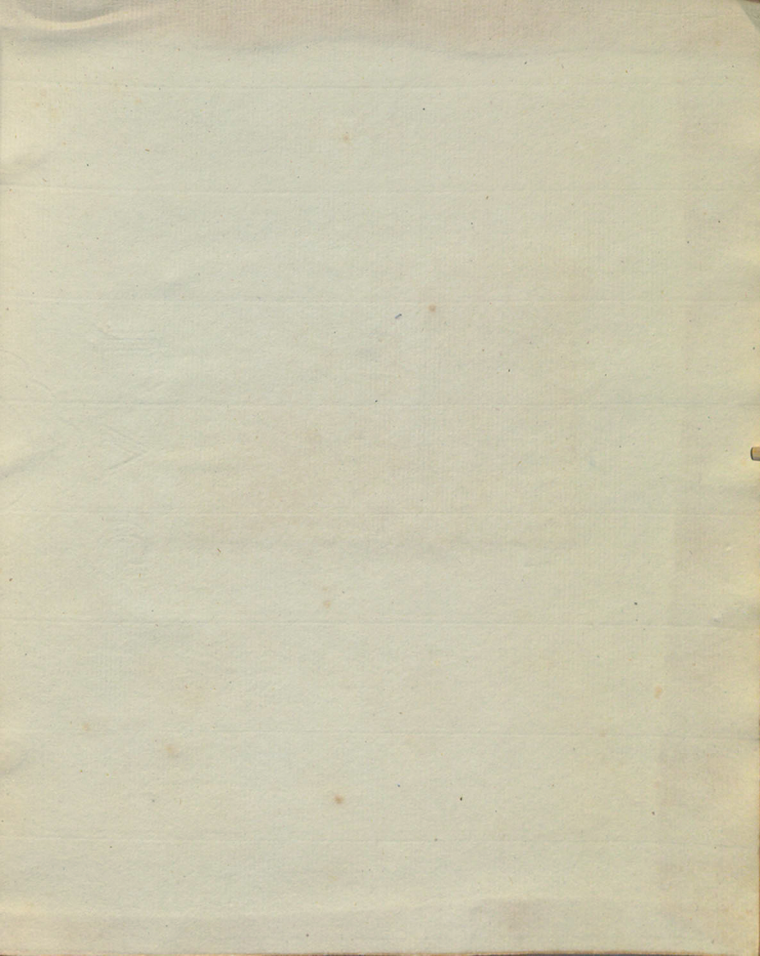
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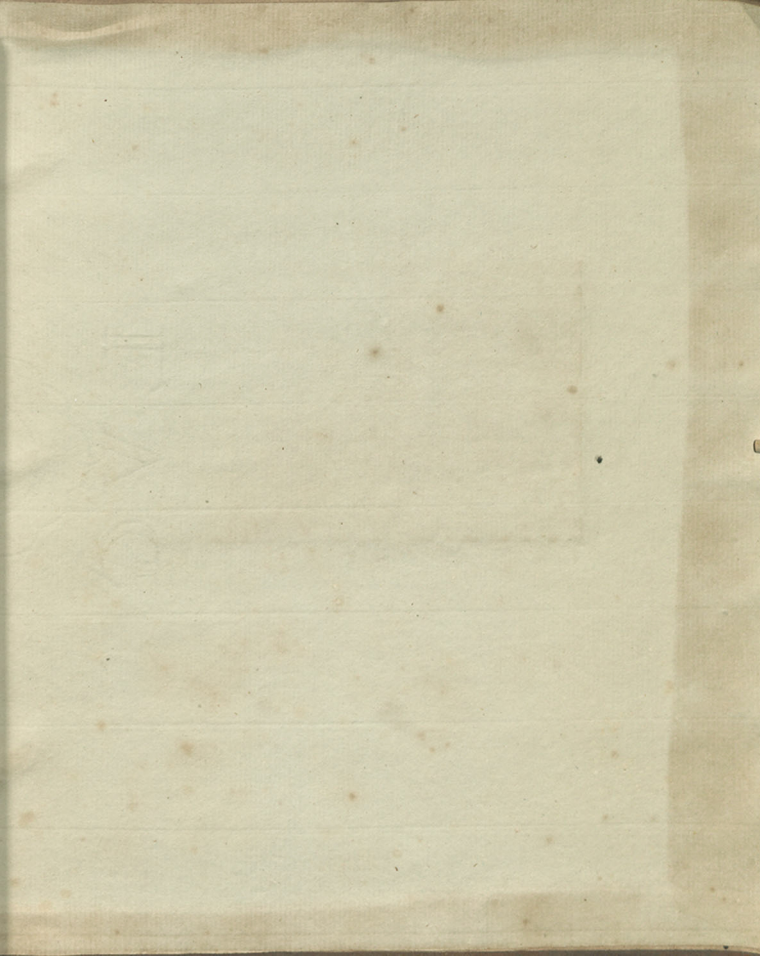
humours, fill the Vessels with Powder, & then put in Some
Essential Oil. Then lay the body on a dry Table & make
it very clean & dry on the outside & rubb it over well with
Spir. of junice & Camphor & afterwards with Essential Oil. Make a Bed
of Fresh baked, well dry'd Paris Plaister in a Box or Coffin & put
the Body in it. Then add Paris Plaister sufficient to half
cover the body & you should take care to keep and the
External Arteries have a Glass over it, that you may see how
it goes on. Many small Bottles of Essential Oil are to be
stuck in the Paris Plaister. The Expence of the Above mentioned
Process besides Boxes is about 10, or 12, which is exactly
the Manner in which Mrs Vanbutchell was Embalmed
Jan. 15. 1775, whose body kept moist except just the
Face for many months, but is now perfectly dry & free
from any Tendency to Putrefaction, in which state I think
doubt not, but she may remain for 500 Years —
Mrs Vanbutchell lies in a Mahogany Glass Case, & has
been seen by a great Number of People —

Finis









N^o 14

Jan 1776

ANATOMY

By D^r Hunter.

Mr W. J. Merce

d 733

